English Vocabulary Input in the Tertiary Classroom in China

by

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Table of Contents

5 Intensive and Extensive Vocabulary Treatment

Book 4

h. Glossary of *College English* Extensive English Book 1 to Book 4

i. Words in the JSS and SSS word list that are not found in the *GSL* and *VP3*

j. Words in the College English word list that are not found in the *GSL* and *AWL*

k. Words in IR textbooks (Book 1 – Book 4) that are not found in the *GSL* and *AWL*

l. Original excerpts of the examples

m. Complete lesson transcriptions

n. Teacher talk in frequency list format

o. Sample unit of *College English* Intensive Reading Book 2 Unit 5 (Students' book)

p. Sample unit of *College English* Intensive Reading Book 2 Unit 5 (Teacher's book) Sample unit of *College English*

q. Sample unit of *College English* Extensive Reading Book 2 Unit 5 Lesson 13 – Lesson 15 (Students' book)

r. Sample mock exam paper

List of abbreviations used in this paper

ELT: English Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

CEB: College English Band

CET: College English Test

C(E): College English Syllabus (for students of Arts and Sciences) word list (Elementary)

C(I): College English Syllabus (for students of Arts and Sciences) word list (Intermediate)

C(A) : College English Syllabus (for students of Arts and Sciences) word list (Advanced)

JSS: Junior Secondary Schools

SSS: Senior Secondary Schools

C: College

CE: College English

SEdC: State Education Committee

AWL: The Academic Word List (Coxhead 1998)

UWL: The University Word List (Xue and Nation 1984)

GSL: The General Service List (West 1953)

IR: Intensive Reading

ER: Extensive Reading

MIT: Models of Innovative Teaching

NMET: National Matriculation English Test

UMI: Unmodified Input

PMI: Premodified Input

IMI: Interactionally Modified Input

UMO: Unmodified output

MO: Modified Output

TTT: Teacher Talking Time

LV: Lexical Variation

VP: VocabProfile (Nation 1986)

List of Tables and Figures

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Abstract

This study investigates the intensity of English vocabulary input available to non-English major university students in the Chinese classroom. It sets out to explore the lexical environment in China by addressing five core questions:

1. What are word lists in China like?
2. What is the relationship between the syllabus wordlist and the vocabulary presented in the textbooks?
3. What is the relationship between the words prescribed in the syllabus and the vocabulary presented in the classroom?
4. What is vocabulary instruction in China like?
5. Do the classrooms for English major university students provide a suitably rich lexical environment?

In order to identify the number and types of words available for teaching and learning, my analysis involved an in-depth examination of the syllabus word lists and textbook word lists, cross-referenced to other ESL word lists. It was found that the vocabulary requirements in the syllabus and textbooks posed enormous demands on teachers in terms of the quantity of words to be covered. University students when they graduate should know 95% of the *GSL* and 83% of the *AWL*, but this only covers about half the total amount of English vocabulary input from the syllabus and the textbooks. They are exposed to many of the "other" words in print. In the classroom, teachers were found to teach a new word explicitly every 2.6 minutes, using vocabulary treatment methods in accordance with the culture of teaching and learning in Chinese contexts. It was found, however, that the teachers' oral input failed to provide a lexically rich environment for incidental vocabulary acquisition, and that the words available from teacher talk were limited in both variation and frequency range.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 The English environment in China

English as a foreign language in China was first taught in the early 19th century[i]. Although there has never been a systemic survey or yearbook of statistics of English teaching and learning in China, the figures which have appeared in different pieces of research witness the expansion of education and a boom in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

In 1956, there were 545 full-time secondary school English teachers (Fu 1986:72). In 1981, out of the total of 263,646 foreign language teachers in secondary schools, 259,054 were teaching English (Fu 1986: 97). The number of English teachers rose to 325,020 in 1985 (Li and Cheung 1988: 368) and jumped to 400,000 in 1995 (Maley 1995) and 547,401 in 1997 (The Educational Statistics Yearbook of China 1997). This large increase in number of EFL teachers reflects a great demand for English learning in the country. Since 1986, English as a foreign language has become a required subject for every student when they begin their secondary schooling. This implies that more students are learning from secondary level. In 1991, it was estimated that the enrolment rate in English classes at schools and universities was about 57 million (Zhu and Chen 1991). In 1995, a report from British Council showed that 95% of students were studying English as a foreign language. In 1997, there were

72 million students studying English at secondary schools and universities (The Educational Statistics Yearbook of China 1997). However, this figure only reflects the number of full-time students learning English at school, and there were many others learning English from other sources. They attended English courses organised by their working unit, took private tuition, enrolled in tutorial schools, or registered for formal televised English courses. Dzau (1990: 32) estimates that at the time of writing there were over 150 million part-time English learners in China. In 1995, it was estimated that there were about 200 million Chinese studying and using English out of a population of 1.2 billion (Zhao and Campbell 1995: 38). In this sense, China is not only the country with the largest population, but probably it has the greatest number of English learners in the world.

In China, foreign language acquisition takes place primarily in the classroom. Hu et al. (1994) studied the English acquisition at university. They suggested that the foreign language classroom was the medium where most learning took place. Their study indicated clearly that English is a school language in the English lessons only. Ma (2000) further remarked that English is never a language in other lessons at school nor at home. It is not even an important language at work.

The English language learning environment in China can be described as 'input-poor' environment defined by Kouraogo (1993) as a place where FL/SL learners have little opportunities to hear or read the language outside or even inside the classroom. Gui (1985) has drawn attention to the uniqueness of the English teaching environment in

China. Before the open door policy in 1977, there was no English-speaking community and even nowadays, the availability of English medium newspapers, magazines, radio programmes, TV programmes is still limited. Although some students will gather in the evening to practise English, native speakers are few and far between. Foreign language proficiency is achieved principally through formal teaching and teachers and the textbooks are the principal sources of foreign language knowledge. The English teachers are indigenously Chinese, trained in Chinese institutions by Chinese teachers. Crook (1985) adds that library resources in universities are not helpful to learners. Books are protected from student readers and the majority of the books are written in or translated into Chinese while it is difficult to obtain official approval to purchase books written in English.

1.2 College English Education

A unified syllabus adopted for all non-English university students learning English as their first second language was developed in 1985 and revised in 1992 and 1999. The *College English Syllabus for students of Arts and Sciences* (The College English Syllabus, hereafter) is designed for all non-English majors in universities and colleges, which accounts for some four million freshmen and sophomores. The objectives of College English are to develop students' competence in reading in their specialities on the one hand, and to train them in listening, writing and speaking skills on the other hand. The College English syllabus spells out the specific expectations it has for students entering university.

There are six progressive College English bands (CEBs) of English learning. Students can start from different bands depending on their level of competence. They must, however, finish CEB4 by the end of their 2nd year. It is optional to take CEBs 5-6. Before the commencement of the academic year, the first year non-English major university students are required to take a placement test in order to decide on the level to be taken. Depending on the result, they may be allocated to CEB 1 and progress to CEB 4 or they may start from CEB 2 and continue up to CEB 5. The class time is officially set at 4 hours per week for no less than 280 semester hours each year. Each band is equivalent to one semester's work.

The teaching materials are designed for both natural sciences and liberal arts students. The content is of general interest and in standard English so as to meet the needs of students from different disciplines. The textbooks *College English*, first trialled in 1986, are still the most widely used teaching materials. The whole series comprises five sets of textbooks - Intensive Reading, Extensive Reading, Focus Listening, Fast Reading and Grammar and Exercises. Each set of textbooks is graded into six progressive levels, except Grammar and Exercises which has four levels only. Teachers' books are written for Intensive Reading and Focus Listening.

In reality, English lessons at university are Intensive Reading lessons. Such lessons take up almost all the 280 semester hours. At the teacher's discretion, a small number of hours may be allocated for Extensive Reading or Listening. Each unit in the Intensive Reading textbook usually consists of a text of about two pages on a general

topic, followed by a list of new words and expressions used in the text accompanied by the English meaning and their translation, then some exercises to practise the vocabulary and grammar covered in that unit, and finally some suggested reading activities and a guided writing task. (The sample unit of *College English* Intensive Reading is documented in the CD ROM.)

Alongside the six progressive CEBs, there are 6 bands of progressive test called College English Tests 1-6 (CETs 1-6)[ii]. The College English Test (CET) is a nationwide test which aims at scientific, objective, unified and standardised assessment. It focuses on students' basic language skills and carries a heavy washback effect on teaching. The test level passed and the score achieved are entered into students' academic records.

The CET4 is of crucial importance to all non-English university students as a mandatory pass must be obtained before proceeding to the third year of study. CET4 is described as a criterion-referenced test (Syllabus for College English Test – Band Four 1987: 1).

Although it is not necessary to study English after CEB4, more and more students these days continue to do CEBs 5 and 6 and take the CETs 5 and 6 as this will increase their employability after graduation. The CET6 is a criterion-related norm-referenced test (Syllabus for College English Test – Band Six 1994: 1).

1.3 The lexical context

The reality that vocabulary is crucial to the success of learning a language and academic performance is widely recognised by both Chinese teachers and learners. Casual conversations with teachers and learners in China revealed their concern with College English teaching and learning. Teachers place vocabulary teaching as a first priority but find it difficult to help learners to "remember" the words taught. Learners study and recite the words every day but find it difficult to use the words when they are exposed to a communicative context.

Chinese learners are particularly keen on learning vocabulary. Cortazzi and Jin (1997) observe that the Chinese regard vocabulary as the most important learning item in a foreign language. Thus, it is not surprising to find students studying dictionaries, memorising word lists, and doing vocabulary exercises. Thorne & Thorne (1992:38) remark that 'most Chinese learners would probably identify the acquisition of "new words" as their single greatest source of problems in learning English'. In acquiring new words, Chinese learners rely heavily on the textbooks and the input from teachers in the classroom environment. The role of the teacher is to help students learn and memorise these new words. Cortazzi and Jin (1997) affirm that despite the rapid expansion of ELT and the adoption of communicative approaches, the Chinese way of learning vocabulary by memorising lists of individual words is reinforced by the syllabus and exam system. As language learning only takes place in the classroom with some memorization of new vocabulary and homework after class, it is logical to assume that classroom is the sole source of language input.

In a study conducted in Hong Kong to examine the kind of words available for acquisition in the junior secondary textbooks, it was found that the great majority of words are specialised vocabulary relating to English for Academic Purposes (Educational Research Establishment 1986). In China, as opposed to Hong Kong, the words available for acquisition are prescribed in the English syllabus and incorporated in the English textbooks. They are not available in other content areas and the orientation of the vocabulary has not been studied. It would be useful to investigate whether these words belong in the domain of EAP or ESP, or the basic vocabulary of daily communication.

In the long history of English learning, vocabulary has always been a major discrete language item in the curriculum. Yang (1990) investigated the number of words introduced in English language textbooks used in China and found that although 6,119 words were covered in the 1949 textbooks, by 1982 this number had dropped to 2,750. Although word knowledge is regarded as an indicator of higher proficiency, the number of words students have to learn keeps falling.

Currently, the vocabulary requirement for university entrance is 1,800 words, of which 1,200 words are regarded as productive. After finishing the 280 semester hours of College English, learners are expected to be able to know 4,200 words for CET4 and 5,500 for CET6[iii]. They are expected to be able to recognise all the receptive lexical items on the word list and know the correct spelling and the basic meaning

and usage of all the productive vocabulary. A word list containing the selected words for CET4 and CET6 is attached to the national syllabus. The requirements for vocabulary learning are also mentioned in the syllabus, for example, acceptable pronunciation, guessing meaning by applying the basic rules of word formation, correct spelling and basic word meaning and usage.

In China, the number of words to be taught and learned is beyond any discussion. The syllabus prescribes the number and the type of words to be acquired at different levels of schooling. The word classes of these selected words and the semantic structures associated with them are all laid down in the national syllabus. These words are then incorporated in the reading passages of the recommended textbooks to ensure that they are taught and learnt.

In an "input-poor" environment, the main source of English vocabulary for the four million Chinese learners is restricted to the teacher and the textbook. It is not surprising that teachers spend a considerable amount of time teaching vocabulary in class, and students study hard in order to master the meanings and usage of several hundred vocabulary items in the word list. Although vocabulary acquisition is such a prominent feature in the world's largest ELT environment, not much is known about the words on the word list, the transfer of word knowledge and teaching methods. Indeed, Cortazzi and Jin (1996a: 75) assert that there is "relatively little research in applied linguistics or ELT in China".

1.4 The present study

This study concerns English language teaching in China with special reference to the context of English vocabulary input. Since learning a foreign language is heavily affected by classroom teaching in China, it is important to see how the teaching and learning environment operates. My aim is to explore the lexical environment in the classroom. I will be looking at the words prescribed in the syllabuses, the words incorporated in the textbooks, the ways teachers teach vocabulary and the words available in oral classroom input.

In the past, researchers were not particularly interested in knowing how English was taught and learned in China. There were not many articles written about English language teaching in China until the 70's. This might be partly due to the political climate or to the fact that researchers were not aware of the huge number of English teachers and EFL learners in this country. The national political and economic policy after the Open Door Policy in 1977 brought a drastic increase in the number of English learners and also encouraged western educators and linguists to study English language education in China. Books and PhD projects on the history of English teaching, the English curriculum, and English teacher education emerged in the eighties. All these studies, to a great extent, were limited to desk research only, which I have to say is not a simple task at all. The information is scattered and very often there is no formal and systematic documentation about what has happened and what is happening. Even if information is available, it is written in Chinese and access is restricted to the local people.

In the nineties, researchers started to focus on the learners. Some looked at the learning strategies and characteristics of the learning style which is typical among Chinese learners in a typical Chinese classroom; some introduced new learning methods; some conducted case studies on good and poor learners. A variety of research methods, empirical, ethnographic, and longitudinal, and data collection methods, such as interviews and surveys, were employed, but the most interesting and neglected aspect of this research was the study of classroom data. Dzau (1990) has pointed out that "ELT in China cannot be fully understood without knowing about the teaching materials and the teaching methods" (44).

This study focuses on College English, which is English for non-English-major undergraduates. Although vocabulary skill is such a crucial item in the College English syllabus, how these teachers actually operationalise vocabulary teaching in the classroom has never been systematically studied and reported on. No study of vocabulary instruction and the lexical environment for vocabulary acquisition in the Chinese classroom has ever taken place.

It is of great relevance to explore the lexical environment for foreign/second language vocabulary acquisition because:

a) China has the greatest number of English learners in the world ;

b) vocabulary is an important and required teaching item in the syllabus;

c) foreign language learning is limited to the classroom context;

d) teacher and textbooks are the principal source of input; and,

e) vocabulary teaching in the Chinese context is an under-researched area.

My reading sources are both Chinese and Western, embedding different emphases and standpoints. Chinese scholars give detailed accounts of the Chinese education system and in-depth discussion of their teaching philosophy in their own language; whereas Western scholars provide more analytical and critical views of the scenario. This wide range of reading ensures a panoramic perspective and a balanced view of the educational issues in China.

Several assumptions about vocabulary acquisition are made regarding the English teaching environment in China:

a) students acquire most or all vocabulary through formal learning in the classroom.;

b) the teachers and the textbooks are the principal sources of vocabulary learning;

c) all university students use the same English textbooks and sit for the national examinations. Teachers follow the same teaching schedule suggested by the syllabus;

d) the national syllabus lays down the approaches and specific language items to be incorporated in the textbooks;

e) specific language items are presented in the textbooks in accordance with the approaches recommended. Suggested teaching methods are included in the teacher's book;

f) teachers follow the national syllabus by adhering to the textbooks.

Having highlighted the teaching context and the vocabulary requirements in China, this study sets out to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of syllabus and textbook word lists in China?
2. What is the relationship between the College English syllabus word list and the vocabulary presented in the College English textbooks?
3. What is the relationship between the words prescribed in the College English syllabus and the vocabulary presented in the classroom?
4. What is the nature of vocabulary instruction in China?
5. Do the FL classrooms provide a rich lexical environment for incidental vocabulary?

Conducting classroom-based research in China is difficult. One of the reasons for this is that Chinese educators often misunderstand the nature and outcome of research work. Many school administrators and teachers believe that classroom-based research is conducted primarily for evaluative purposes – to identify problems and to draw comparisons between teachers or schools. They are afraid that research results might threaten the status of the teachers and the reputation of the school, pose challenges to school management and attract unwelcome attention from Party officials.

For this reason, classroom observation requests are often met by overly prepared "showcase" lessons. The best class, the best teacher, the most innovative teaching and the most updated teaching facility will usually be chosen and used for observation. To

avoid the possible arrangement of "showcase" lessons, the purpose and the data collection method of this research were very clearly explained to the teachers. They fully understood that the data had to be raw and unpolished. Thus, the teaching style and methods documented in this study can be regarded as a true record and reflection of the normal practices of these teachers.

1.5 Summary of the chapters

This is data-driven and classroom-based research. The syllabus word lists at junior secondary, senior secondary and university levels were collected. The glossaries at the end of the Intensive Reading (IR) and Extensive Reading (ER) textbooks were typed to form the IR and ER word lists. Recordings of 1,360 minutes of English lessons from six teachers at three universities were transcribed to produce a classroom corpus of teacher talk.

Chapter Two provides an overview of English language teaching and contemporary educational reality. It presents the issues that will be interpreted, explained, judged, analysed and argued over in the following chapters. The information and the situations presented in this chapter reveal the history, ideology, structure, size, centralisation, development and political maxims of English teaching and learning in the Chinese education system. In particular, I will highlight some generally recognised Chinese styles of teaching and learning which bear negative connotations. I will argue that there are positive elements in these culturally specific phenomenon and that their value needs to be recognised.

In Chapter Three, I will review some hypotheses that have been proposed for language acquisition in general and some popular ideas about vocabulary teaching and learning in the formal learning environment. Second language acquisition is multifaceted (VanPatten and Cadierno 1993), and there is no single theory that satisfactorily explain how a FL/SL learner can best learn vocabulary (Ellis 1990; McLanghlin 1989). In this Chapter, I will look at a variety of approaches to vocabulary acquisition and different problems that emerge. I will critique studies of intensive and extensive exposure through oral input in the formal learning environment, as well as studies of lexical difficulties and the mental lexicon. This discussion of how languages are learned and how vocabulary may be treated in the classroom helps justify the objectives of my study. It also helps define the choice of methods and tools adopted in this whole thesis.

Chapter Four begins with an overview of the criteria used to compile a word list, and a discussion of word lists used in China. The syllabus word list is compared with the textbook word lists for College English and both are compared with the *General Service List* (West 1953), *VocabProfile* (Nation 1986) and the *Academic Word List* (Coxhead 1998) to verify the nature of words available for Chinese university students.

Chapter Five investigates the classroom data – what vocabulary items teachers taught, how they taught them and what oral lexical input they provided for incidental

vocabulary acquisition. The lesson transcriptions are analysed to identify explicitly treated vocabulary items and see how teachers explicitly taught them. My analysis draws on a series of experiments conducted by Ellis and his co-researchers (Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki 1995, Ellis 1995, Ellis and He 1999) on the effects of different methods of explicitly teaching new vocabulary as oral input, and on Tang and Nesi's work on intensive and extensive exposure to English words in the Chinese classroom (forthcoming). The teachers' talk is also analysed using the measure of lexical variation (LV) adopted by Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997) and Brown and Sagers (1999) to assess lexical richness in the classroom.

Chapter Six concludes the study of the nature of the word lists, the teaching instructions and the lexical environment of Chinese university English courses. Based on the analysis and observation, I will outline some recommendations for improving the existing word list and enriching the lexical environment.

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i See Fu (1986) and Li and Cheung (1988) for a historical account of English teaching in China.

ii It is optional to take CEBs 5 and 6, except in the case of students starting from CEBs 2 and 3 they must complete CEBs 5 and 6.

iii Vocabulary requirements at university level

CEB	Class Hours	Vocabulary			
		receptive		productive	
		no. of words	accumulative total	no. of words	accumulative total
1	70	550	2,350	350*	1,550
2	70	600	2,950	350*	1,900
3	70	600	3,550	300*	2,250
4	70	650	4,200	300*	2,500
5	70	650	4,850	250*	2,750
6	70	650	5,500	250*	3,000

▪ Source: College English Syllabus Revision Team. 1995. *College English Syllabus for students of Arts and Sciences*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, p.12.

* The College English Syllabus was revised in 1999 with a higher requirement on the number of productive words at each level. The number of productive words to be known at each level is raised by fifty words more. Thus, students at CEB1should know 400 productive words instead of 350 and so forth.

Chapter Two

A Cultural Framework: the way Chinese learn English

For English learners in China, learning English is instrumental. A knowledge of English gives individuals opportunities for higher education, for career advancement, for better jobs with better pay in foreign-funded joint ventures, and for study and travel abroad (Gui 1985, Dzau 1990, Wu et al 1992). The falling demand for interpreters and the growing need for a high level of English proficiency in trading corporations have great impact on the educational policies. The expansion of international business requires graduates to be proficient in the productive skills of writing and speaking. Learning English is viewed as the key to open the door to opportunities for self-development and material gain. (see Appendix 1 for the summary of EFL development in China)

For the country, education is of strategic importance. Teaching and learning English as a foreign language is a tool for the achievement of national, political and economic goals[i]. As Adamson and Morris (1997) suggest, there has always been a strong link between macro national priorities and the role of English. Macro policy decisions made by the central government subsequently direct the "genesis and orientation of curriculum reform initiatives" (25). In the Chinese context, the curriculum development and pedagogies promoted have been influenced and even determined by political decisions (see Gui 1985; Dzau 1990; Hayhoe 1984; Ross 1993; Adamson and Morris 1997).

In response to the Party's decision to accelerate the modernisation process, since 1985 a series of ELT reforms has been launched at different levels of schooling. At university level, the *College English Syllabus for students of Arts and Sciences,* first introduced in 1986 and revised in 1999, is the outcome of the call from the government for highly competent English learners to meet the challenge of the 21st century. The syllabus reflects the mainstream notion of developing the ability to use English as a tool for communication, as well as the country's policy to use language as a mean of acquiring knowledge from the west.

2.1 The syllabus issue

The terms "syllabus" and "curriculum" are interchangeable in the Chinese context. Both are translated as "*kecheng*"(课程) in Chinese. The definition of "*kecheng*" is two-fold. It shapes the knowledge, skills and experience that teachers use in teaching and students use in learning (Lewin et al. 1994) and specifies teaching qualitatively and quantitatively (Hong 1990). The *College English Syllabus for Students of Arts and Science* is the national syllabus for all non-English major university students. It stipulates 280 hours of teaching for the non-English major in the first and the second years of university. In addition, it designates another two hours of homework after each hour in class. The syllabus also specifies the extent and content of the teaching of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, writing and speaking. Inventories of vocabulary, a grammatical summary, functions and notions and micro-skills are attached to control the content and the dimensions of teaching. Guidelines for teaching, including appropriate

approaches and emphases, advice on the setting up of 'second classrooms' where teacher and learners gather to practise English outside class time, and the use of teaching aids, are included for the teachers' reference.

When there is a syllabus reform in China, a new set of "recommended" textbooks appears. *College English*, written by renowned professors from famous universities, has been the most prestigious textbook series at university level since the release of the College English syllabus in 1986.[ii] In China , there is no other way for most people to learn a foreign language except from the textbook (Campbell and Zhao 1993). As the national examination is designed to test the students' textbook knowledge, it is impossible to teach without the textbook.

Richards (1993) stated that "textbooks and other commercial materials in many situations represent the hidden curriculum of the ESL course" (p.43). The ideological assumption is that the textbooks and the teachers' book can train teachers to be aware of the latest teaching theories and approaches and to learn the pedagogy. They reflect the objectives, the syllabus, the teaching and learning philosophy. In his study of Hong Kong secondary school English teachers, Richards finds that these teachers, indigenous Chinese, regard textbooks as a primary source of teaching ideas and materials. The textbooks provide practice activities, a structured language program, the language models, and information about the language that they need for their lessons. They thus relieve pressure on the teachers as far as planning, preparing, organising and designing are concerned. However, Richards warned that over-

dependence on textbooks would lead to negligence of students' needs and deskilling of teachers: there would be a reduction in the teacher's role and a reduction in the quality of teachers' decision making and pedagogical reasoning.

It is expected that each lesson, the teacher will explicitly teach a large number of new words selected from the relevant textbook chapter. The mode of the lessons is in the form of lecturing and students are expected to take notes. After class, students memorise the new vocabulary and complete the exercise.

The *College English* textbooks are complemented by the teachers' books. Teachers' books are considered as a way to present new teaching methods (Adamson 1996), and they also function as resource books for teachers. Answers to exercises, explanations of grammar points, the meanings of new words, information related to the reading passage, and suggestion for language activities are also included (The sample units of *College English* Intensive Reading from the students' book and teacher's book are documented in the CD ROM).

When I was visiting universities in Shenzhen, Guangzhou and Beijing between 1997 and 1999, I found that some of the English teachers complained that because the *College English* teachers' books were available from the bookshop, their teaching was challenged by students who already knew the answers and explanations very well. Their anxiety illustrates the fact that the teachers' book is very important to the teachers as a source of innovations, knowledge and language. It also reveals the

teacher reliance on the book, something which has limited the flexibility and creativity in delivering lessons and adopting alternative ways of teaching.

This textbook-centred approach to teaching reflects some education realities in China. For the authority's point of view, the textbook:

i) is an effective medium to transmit new teaching philosophy and methodology,

ii) ensures standardisation of teaching in diverse settings (in terms of resources, facilities, teacher qualifications and command of the language),

iii) assures the breadth and depth of input for the national examination.

From the teacher's point of view, the textbook:

iv) provides relevant and necessary knowledge and language input under conditions where teaching resources and innovations are inaccessible or limited,

v) provides guidance on how and what to teach,

vi) ensures appropriate and adequate teaching for the national examination,

vii) accords with traditional teacher-centred and textbook-centred teaching methods.

The revised College English syllabus (1999) stated that the teaching materials are intended to provide the best language examples for classroom teaching. The textbook is presented as the centre of classroom teaching, the classroom is presented as a place

for practising the target language. Again, the traditional teacher-centred and textbook-centred methods are consolidated.

In China, syllabuses are the standards to assure the realisation of national goals or curriculum reform, to regulate English teaching for 68 million secondary school students and 4 million university students, and to prepare them for the national examinations. Teachers treat the syllabus as a directive document that no teaching should and can deviate from without approval from higher levels. They all adhere closely to the published syllabus and the recommended textbooks. The relationship between the syllabus, recommended textbooks, and the teacher is top-down linear trilateral. The politically engineered curriculum directs the content, format and the philosophy of the textbooks. With the help of the teacher's book, the textbooks dictate the teaching methods of the teacher and standardise the learning content.

A nationally unified teaching syllabus with central guidelines on what, when and how to teach seems an inevitable necessity for a big country with diverse teaching and learning environments. Unfortunately, this degree of control allows almost no flexibility in the content, time schedule, teaching method and teaching materials.

The College English Syllabus and the CET have been established for more than a decade. In the past few years, reform of the syllabus, textbooks and the test has been a hot topic. Some College English teachers have queried whether this 'one size fits all' syllabus is appropriate for the four million university students in China, and have

suggested that different levels of the syllabus might be developed to meet the diverse language proficiency of students who are from key universities and those who are not (Cheng 1997). Some universities, especially the non-key universities, have discussed the possibility of developing another set of textbooks at a more appropriate level for their students.[iii] Seeing the change in English needs, the National College English Testing Committee of China met in 1997 and reviewed the syllabus and the test. A revised College English syllabus was announced in September 1999. Changes were made and students are now expected to learn about five hundred more specified vocabulary items and be more proficient in speaking and listening.

Although syllabus changes have been made from time to time, the new input does not seem to have a major impact on the philosophy of education. In the first draft of the revised College English Syllabus (1998: 7), the committee reminded the writers and teachers of the importance of the inherited, long-established and effective teaching experience in China alongside borrowed western methods of language teaching.

2.2 The realisation of "Chinese essence": teaching in a Chinese way

Central to this study is the concept of a "culture of learning" (Cortazzi and Jin 1996b). Cortazzi and Jin describe the "culture of learning" as "taken-for-granted frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn" (p.169). Western and Chinese educators and researchers seem to agree about the "culture of learning" associated with Chinese learners, teachers and educational programmes. Chinese learners are always

described as "rote-learners" who are "passive", "spoon-fed", "quiet", "unquestioning", "motivated", "obedient", "disciplined" and so on (Thogersen 1990; Paine 1992; Biggs 1996; Biggs 1999). Chinese teachers are often portrayed as authoritative and dominant (Thogersen 1990; Paine 1992; Scollon and Scollon 1994; Biggs and Watkins 1996; Biggs 1996; Cortazzi and Jin 1996a; Li 1999) while the education system is often described as examination-oriented (Thogersen 1990, Cleverley 1991; Paine 1992; Lewin et al. 1994; Biggs and Watkins 1996). The commonly held opinion is that the teacher in China is in control of knowledge and delivery, while learners listen and remember, and that examinations are of crucial importance, the ultimate goal for teachers and learners.

Cleverley (1991:1) has pointed out that "adequate understanding of contemporary schooling requires a prior accounting of the contribution of men and women long dead which still shapes the acceptability of change and reform". The learning habits and teaching patterns observed in the contemporary Chinese context are regarded as having particularly deep roots. Many researchers and educators have told us that modern education in China is heavily influenced by history, traditions and culture (Cleverley 1991; Thogersen 1990; Paine 1992; Price 1992; Ross 1992; Zhu 1992; Hoobler and Hoobler 1993; Tu 1993; Lewin et al. 1994; Scollon and Scollon 1994; Watkins and Biggs 1996; Cortazzi and Jin 1996a; Brooks 1997; Biggs 1999).

In the 19th century, the motto for self-strengthening was "Chinese learning for fundamental principle; Western learning for practical application"- *zhongxue wei ti,*

xixue wei yong. By "Chinese learning" was meant "the Confucian orthodoxy[iv]" (Ross 1992). This historical collection of trends in philosophy continues to have an enduring relevance in modern Chinese society. This can be illustrated by the speech made by the Chinese Vice President, Mr. Hu Jintao, during his official visit to Malaysia. He quoted Confucius' sayings in the *Analects* as doctrines of the foreign policy of China (TVB News, 24 April 2002). The Confucian influences are also perceptible in the education system and are reflected in its teaching practices and learners' behaviour (Paine 1992; Cortazzi and Jin 1996a; Reynolds and Farrell 1996; Zhou 1992), classroom discourse (Scollon 1999), the curriculum (Price 1992; Thogersen 1990; PRC State Education Committee 1993; PRC State Education Committee 1996), teacher-learner relationships (Zhu 1992; Chen and Drover 1997; Ouyang 2000) and textbook writing (Adamson and Morris 1997).

Confucius viewed education as a means to achieve personal perfection and to become a gentleman. He had little regard for the teaching of practical skills, but was primarily concerned with the perfection of the traditional virtues.

> The Master said, "The gentleman has morality as his basic stuff and by observing the rites puts it into practice, by being modest gives it expression, and by being trustworthy in word brings it to completion. Such is a gentleman indeed." *The Confucian Analects XV:18.* (Lau 1983: 153)

According to Confucius, moral values were transmitted from the teacher, who set a moral example, acted as a natural centre for teaching, and conveyed the moral principles recorded in texts or learned from antiquity. The teacher's main duty was to transmit

ideological qualifications leading to moral superiority. The transmission process was unilateral; the teacher was the master and the learners were the disciples.

The teacher is someone who is in control of knowledge and delivery and the learner has a duty to study. Confucius believed that one's ability was a controllable learning factor. It could be increased or improved through internal attributions, such as effort, diligence, determination and discipline. Thus achievement and failure in learning were considered as a personal responsibility.

> The Master said, "I was not born with knowledge but, being fond of antiquity, I am quick to seek it." *The Analects, VII:20.* (ibid:61)

To facilitate the creation of a successful learning environment, it was the learners' duty to construct a harmonious atmosphere by being obedient, co-operative and polite. They had to observe closely the role and relationship principles which are significant themes of the Confucian concept. Any changes in the role and the relationship would be treated as improper and disrespectful of authority and the patriarchal and hierarchical patterns.

> In the local community, Confucius was submissive and seemed to be inarticulate. In the ancestral temple and at court, though fluent, he did not speak lightly. *The Analects, X:1.* (ibid:87)

> The Master said, "A young man should be a good son at home and an obedient young man abroad, sparing of speech but trustworthy in what he says, and should love the multitude at large but cultivate the friendship of his fellow men. If he has energy to spare from such action, let him devote it to making himself cultivated." *The Analects, I:6.(* ibid:3)

In the old days Confucian teaching was based on moral principles which were irrefutable dogmas. The best way to remember them was word-by-word memorization. This didactic teaching was reinforced by pressure from the examination system[v] which required excellent memory and knowledge of the Classics. The washback effect of the examination, therefore, prescribed the teaching and learning methods. Examination was important in the Confucian era as it was regarded as the only way to select top officials to serve the bureaucracy and to achieve sagehood. Good education produced good men and through examination, sages would be selected to serve the government and to change the society. Success in examinations was rated highly by society.

> Tzu-hsia said, "When a man in office finds that he can more than cope with his duties, then he studies; when a learner finds that he can more than cope with his studies, then he takes office." *The Confucian Analects XIX:13.* (Lau 1983: 195)

Although the moral precepts of Confucius have been challenged, suppressed and restored during different political periods, his thinking and ethical values have been the ruling ideology of Chinese society for the last 2000 years. As noted by Scollon and Scollon (1994:6), these philosophical patterns are "pervasive and of great historical depth and complexity" to Chinese learners of English. The theory of teaching and learning foreign languages is inculcated with history, culture and traditions. The present ideology of foreign language teaching and learning is not a new principle but has historical, developmental, and cultural roots.

The strong social orientation that puts emphasis on moral instruction, the immutable teacher-centred methods, the practice of rote learning and memorization, and the selection of excellence through examination are the characteristics of traditional Chinese education. They are also the prevailing features of the philosophy of education in modern China. It cannot be denied that Confucian concepts pervade the history of Chinese education and form the backbone of the philosophy of education in modern China.

Li (1999), an experienced university English teacher in China, commented that the Chinese classroom still exhibits a traditional teaching approach. Teachers stand in front of the classroom while large numbers of students sit in rows of desks facing the blackboard. The teaching method is dominated by the lecture mode. Students memorise information provided by the teacher through lectures and reproduce it in some kind of examination. Success in learning is attributed to traditional virtues, such as personal modesty, self-discipline, and obedience to authority.

The Chinese phenomenon of teaching and learning are further affirmed by the strong inclination towards homogeneity and collectivity in the EFL classroom. In 1997 and 1998, a total of twenty secondary school teachers from both key and ordinary schools teaching junior forms English in Guangzhou and Shanghai were observed after trialling the communicative syllabus for a few years (Ng and Tang 1999). These schools were using the same textbooks *Junior English for China,* the classroom setting was identical and the classroom practices seemed to be well-established. The teaching procedures and the methods of delivery were rigidly similar among teachers

as they all followed the procedures and methods suggested in the teachers' book, involving a five-step method of teaching: revision, presentation, drilling, practice and consolidation. This typical format was orchestrated by the methodology underlying the textbook, or written in the teacher's book.

Standardisation of teaching was also reinforced by group lesson preparation. Each week, all teachers teaching the same level discussed the schedule, planned the lesson and observed teaching. The teaching schedule and methods used among teachers teaching the same level in the same school were uniform as set in the standardized lesson planning session. Teachers also attended public showcase lessons arranged by the Provincial Education Committee, aiming at copying the teaching skills of the model teacher.

Similarly, at university, collective lesson planning is organized by the teaching and research group. Teachers teaching the same level prepare Chinese translation of the vocabulary, lay down a detailed lesson plan, discuss the emphasis of the teaching points, prepare quizzes or examinations and exchange their experiences of teaching. They believe that standardization is a guarantee of quality teaching.

This teacher-centred, textbook-centred and standardized approach accords with that reported by Ross (1992). Ross argued that the conformity of teaching through uniform lesson planning and public showcase lessons helped equalize every student's learning conditions in diverse teaching and learning environments.

The concept of standardisation or uniformity is reflected in the unified national syllabus, the choice of textbooks, the reliance on teachers' books, group lesson planning, public showcase lessons and a set of socio-culturally acceptable teaching practices for students with different abilities, needs and interests across the country. It is also prominent in the examination system which is a main feature in the Chinese education structure.

2.3 To test and to be tested

In the days of the Higher Institutions Entrance Examination, major cities of China were under strict traffic control (Apple Daily, 8 July 2002, A20). All vehicles were forbidden to blow their horns and all motor cycles had to switch off their engines. Police were mobilized to deliver exam papers and to ensure swift traffic flow to all examination venues. The intensity and pressure of examination is enforced by people from all walks of life. This year, there were about 5.3 million secondary school students sitting for the national university entrance examination. Only 2 million of them will be accepted.

The education system in China is often described as examination-oriented (Thogersen 1990, Cleverley 1991; Paine 1992; Lewin et al. 1994; Biggs and Watkins 1996). It is over-shadowed by examinations and assessments – both external and internal, formal and informal, big and small (see Appendix 2 for the education and examination systems in China).

Evaluative assessment, which is cricual in the Chinese education system, has been made compulsory for English. Formal provincial and nation-wide examinations in English now serve as a means of personal advancement. All sorts of formal and official tests and examinations start at secondary levels. The examinations at 15 and 18 are crucial. They are large-scale standardised tests administered at provincial and national levels. The test results determine where the students continue study (at a key school/university[vi] or at an ordinary one), or whether they go to work. Testing in secondary schools is extremely frequent. It is considered as an effective measure to revise the taught items, to check the progress of the students and to filter students who are lagging behind. In 1986, Chinese students from primary to senior secondary went through 90 to 100 screenings based on academic tests (Thogersen 1990). Before they move to the tertiary institution, another major examination, the university entrance examination, has to be taken.

Examination in the Chinese context is meritocratic, competitive and elitist. It is a popular indicator of good teaching and learning, as plainly written in the syllabus. The national examinations in China are all syllabus-referenced. Thus, the teaching syllabus is also the examination syllabus. The pressure stemming from the nature of the examination leads to heavy reliance on teaching and learning methods that are proven to be effective. The traditional teacher-centred approach, spoon-feeding and memorisation have their place. It is believed that more teaching, more exercises, more tests and more recitation will lead to more marks.

The enduring nature of the examination has conditioned the form and content of the education system and indicates the functional value of examinations for Chinese society (Miyazaki 1976). It also motivates students to work harder. Unger (1980; quoted in Lewin et al. 1994) studied urban schools in Guangzhou during the Cultural revolution period when the education system almost collapsed, revealing that examinations were one of the prime motivators for learning and education. Unger remarks that if the link between academic qualifications and educational and occupational futures was broken, most students would lack motivation to pay attention in class.

Wang (2002) pointed out that the assessment of English is too knowledge-oriented and both teachers and students feel overburdened by examinations. Qi (2000) studied the washback effect on school teaching and learning. She interviewed seven test constructors, twelve teachers and twelve students and distributed two sets of questionnaire to three hundred teachers and one thousand students who were involved in the National Matriculation English Test (NMET), a norm-referenced standardised proficiency university entry test. She found that some intentions of the test constructors are met and some are not. For example, language skills and knowledge are successfully tested, but pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge is not. Some intentions triggered unwanted classroom practices. The teaching of writing led the teachers to focus on good handwriting and neatness. The teaching of reading aloud and pronunciation led to rote learning of spelling and pronunciation rules. Teachers prepared long lists for rote learning of spelling and pronunciation. She concluded that

the influence of high-stake tests on teaching and learning is direct and immediate. However, the relationship is far more complex than is often assumed.

The complexity can be diagnosed from different perspectives. First, the national examination is always used by the society to evaluate schools and by schools, parents and students to evaluate teachers. The performance of the students in the examination will directly rebound on teachers' ability and status. Second, the intentions of the test constructors are implicit, ambiguous, and unclear in the syllabus. It is not clear how the result of the high stake test and the test format could possibly induce positive washback. Third, the marking criteria are not transparent. Thus, anything that can help students to score marks and to impress the markers will be drilled and practised in the learning process. Teachers help students to practise exam skills, which is also a way to obtain high scores. Finally, the two groups of people have different kinds of job and serve different "bosses" who have different requirements and expectations. The test constructors work for the State and they are not personally responsible for the achievement of the students, not observed and monitored by the socio-cultural environment and expectations. On the other hand, the teacher's mission, imposed by the education system, society, principal, parents, colleagues and students, is to help student get high scores in the exam.

The educational realities force teachers to stick closely to the national syllabus and the recommended textbooks and to sustain the teacher-centred approach.

2.4 Learning behaviour

Imitation and repetition are common in Chinese classrooms. They characterize all EFL classes at secondary school. Imitation is emphasized when doing oral work. The teacher demonstrates pronunciation and intonation in an exaggerated manner. Then learners mimic together and an individual learner is asked to produce an exact reproduction. As Wong (1988) points out, Classical Chinese was traditionally learnt through imitation. Learners were expected to follow the teacher closely, and if they could do exactly the same as their teacher did, the transfer was deemed successful and the learners were believed to have learned their lesson.

Repetitive practice has become a means to achieve imitation. Today it is usually conducted in the form of oral drills and written exercises. Since imitation is taken to mean successful learning, oral drills are considered an important classroom activity for learners to follow and remember. In teaching pronunciation, intonation, and useful expressions, it is common to hear learners chanting loudly and repeatedly after the teacher. Grammar and vocabulary items are usually practised after class. The teacher will explain the grammar points and new words in detail in class, and this is then followed by home assignments. The taught language items will be exhaustively explored by completing the workbook and the mechanical exercises prepared by the teacher. Although exercises are tedious, they are considered as the only way to learn the foreign language and learners are expected to engage in exercises on the teacher's command (Campbell and Zhao 1993, Mu 2001).

Although many western educationalists reject rote learning, the method is highly regarded by Chinese learners, teachers and textbook writers. Memorizing (becoming familiar with the text), understanding, reflecting and questioning (self-questioning) are the basic components of learning in the Confucian tradition (Lee 1996:36), further developed by followers of Confucius. Zhu Xi, a neo-Confucian thinker of the Song Dynasty (960-1279), believed that the path to learning was through reciting, thinking and understanding, and Wang Yangming, a great scholar in the Ming Dynasty (1367-1643), described memory, understanding and incorporation as the three significant processes of learning. In modern society, according to Crook (1985), mechanical memorization has been supported and reinforced by study of the party politics, a compulsory subject at all levels of schooling. Politics lectures encouraged unquestioning repetition of communist dogma.

Memorization is mentioned explicitly in the syllabus as one of the abilities to be developed alongside language skills (English Syllabus for Senior Secondary 1995). Mechanical memorisation is considered as the most efficient way of learning words and that is what Chinese learners do most of the time (Chang 1990, Zhang 1997, Cortazzi and Jin 1997). Most university students regularly spend time every morning memorizing at least fifteen to twenty words from the syllabus, from the IR textbooks or other English books available (Li & Li 1991:69).

Wong (1988), in her critical review of research into the learning of English by Chinese speakers, points out that the Chinese acquire literacy through a language

which has no "concrete script-speech relations". In learning to read in Chinese, Chinese learners resort to "rote memorization of the meaning(s) associated with a word of a certain configuration". This is practised by children as young as three, when they are in the kindergarten. Wong argues that memorization is a learning strategy transferred from learning the Chinese language to learning the foreign language. When learners start learning the foreign language at the age of 11 or 12 in the secondary school, it is easier and safer for them to apply the same strategy – a strategy which has been developed and tested satisfactorily in the past - to learn the new language.

In addition to historical and developmental reasons, memorization also seems to be practised as a matter of pragmatism . In a recent study by Garrott (1993), a sample of 512 university learners in China rated it as one of the six most popular methods for effective studying, although they also considered that memorizing without understanding, memorizing dictionary definitions and memorizing words without using them idiomatically were some of the least effective methods of learning a language.

A further study by Marton et al. (1996) drew on interview data from seventeen Chinese teacher-educators who were questioned about their views on learning, understanding, memorising and teaching-learning relationships. The teachers' concepts of learning were found to involve understanding and memorising - they asserted that understanding required memorising, and memorising could facilitate

understanding. They believed that after repeated exposure to learning materials, new ideas would emerge that would help deepen understanding. Thus it would appear that, at least in the eyes of the teachers in this study, Chinese learners are not necessarily rote-learners. Memorisation by repetitive learning seems to have potential as a deep strategy to achieve understanding (Biggs 1996; Marton et al. 1996).

The studies conducted by Garrott and by Marton et al. reported that Chinese learners and teachers acknowledged the importance and effectiveness of memorization in the process of learning. Although Western scholars consider memorization to be a surface approach to learning, the studies suggest that Chinese learners see themselves as deep learners.

The old Chinese ideology that the teacher is the source and supplier of the knowledge remains, despite reform and requests for change. This established belief and the experience in learning Classical Chinese naturally sustain the Audio-lingual and the Grammar-Translation approaches when teaching and learning the foreign language (Ma 1999).

The precedents, the nation, the way the Chinese learn their own language and the Chinese culture interweave and model teaching practice and learning behaviour. Chinese culture, in particular, pre-determines and preserves the framework of teaching and learning beliefs which suit the Chinese people. With such enduring and unique characteristics, the Chinese style of education deserves recognition and respect. It is logical to argue that failure to discern these Chinese characteristics or the

complexity of teaching practices and learning styles might ruin the teaching and learning process in China.

2.5 The contemporary English classroom

The latest College English syllabus introduced in 1999 has shown an emphasis on the use of English. The word list was modified and the format of CET was changed to include a test of spoken English, piloted in several coastal provinces. On the one hand, the revised syllabus called for the retention of the inherited ways of teaching and learning particularly effective in the Chinese context. On the other hand, the revised syllabus required teachers to make tremendous changes in their approach to language (from knowledge-oriented to competence-oriented), teaching (from explanation-centred to elicitation centred), learning (from recitation-based to utilization-based) and methods (from authority-dominated to interaction-dominated). Teachers suffered from a sense of ideology conflict, a clash in cultural beliefs, however, and did not receive adequate retraining (Tang 2001a).

The teaching materials for the College English Syllabus were intended to provide the best language examples for classroom teaching. The textbook is presented as the centre of classroom teaching, the classroom is presented as a place for practising the target language and autonomous learning is presented as the key to successful learning. Again, the traditional teacher-centred, textbook-centred methods and self-disposition of diligence are consolidated.

With the expansion in university intakes, the College English teachers are undertaking heavier teaching and administrative loads. The more experienced teachers are always less flexible regarding the reform and the new method because of their own language learning background. They do not have the proficiency and the cultural knowledge to interpret the requirements of the new syllabus. Added to this, the practice of rehearsing before examinations further restricts the successful implementation of the College English Syllabus.

In face of pressure for change, eclecticism is widely promoted and accepted by teachers as the most appropriate approach (Wu 1983; Cortazzi and Jin 1997). Whether all teachers have the same understanding and interpretation of this term and whether it is a compromise, an avoidance strategy, or a defined new approach is unknown. The eclectic era could become the lost era unless teachers make use of opportunities to test the possibilities and to search for improvement and advancement. Despite the promotion of communicative language teaching as a "flexible" and "handy" approach, most teachers have now come back to the grammar-translation method (GT) after trying one method after another (Zheng et al. 1997b; He 1999).

There is no such thing as good or bad language teaching, there is only teaching that is appropriate or inappropriate (Spolsky 1989) or effective or ineffective (Harmer 1990). The Great Chinese leader, Deng Xiao Peng, once said to his people: "No matter whether it is a black cat or a white cat, a cat that catches a mouse is a good cat". If students believe that full mastery of knowledge will come when maximum

input is received, the way Chinese teachers teach in class with explicit and elaborated instructions perfectly matches the expectations of the students. If a teaching method can facilitate learning experience, it is an appropriate, effective and good method. One means of judging teaching quality is the students' performance in those crucial public examinations. When the methods are proven to be effective in achieving good performance in the examination and are accepted by the students, parents, teachers and the school administrators, it is just unconvincing to ask the teachers to take the risk of replacing the old with the new and to change the teaching style that actually meets the expectations of the stakeholders. However, the actual ability of the student cannot be validated by the examination as, for example, a good result in the College English examination does not necessarily imply that the student is proficient in English. It can only reflect how well the student knows the contents of the syllabus.

Zhou (1992) investigated the specific learning styles that teachers feel to be most beneficial on the premise that teachers will probably choose related teaching modes to promote such ways of learning. Zhou surveyed 50 in-service middle school teacher-trainees aged 25 to 40 years old on their preferred learning styles. In a questionnaire study, these teachers were found to believe that grammar was not an essential part of learning but that error-correction was a very important aspect of a teacher's role. A teacher-centred and knowledge-oriented instructional mode was highly favoured. These findings suggest that the teacher-centred approach is still dominant in the Chinese middle school English classroom. These teacher-trainees preferred learning

on their own outside class, reading novels, newspapers and studying English books. They were not keen on group work, classroom interaction and class activities.

Another study conducted by Tan (1992) surveyed 300 students from a normal (teacher training) university on their learning style preferences. The results showed that these teacher trainees had a strong preference for individual learning and kinesthetic learning. 94% had a negative attitude towards group learning. The results of the students' learning style preferences correspond to Zhou's (1992) findings on teachers' learning style preferences. Both teachers and students are inclined to the traditional teaching and learning methods.

If these front-line teachers and teacher trainees feel that they can benefit from these learning modes, they will probably choose related teaching methods to promote such ways of learning. This suggests a strong relationship between culture and learning styles. Throughout Chinese classrooms, we find the shared methodology and culture inherited, evolved and consolidated to form the "Chinese characteristics" of education. These Chinese characteristics are inherited, enduring and reinforcing. It is simply unwise to disregard the well-established set-up and uproot historical and cultural practices.

2.6 Concluding remarks

Western educators and researchers present education philosophy in China correctly, but it is unfair to interpret the Chinese characteristics entirely negatively. The

Confucian conservatism which constitutes a strong heritage prevails in the Chinese education system through highly centralized curricula, which are characterized by textbook-centredness, teacher-centredness and examination-centredness (OuYang 2000). These, however, are judged to be outdated and unimaginative. The traditional way of learning through imitation and memorization is always criticized as unconstructive and passive. However, these teaching and learning behaviours share a solid historical and cultural tradition and are of proven pedagogical value. They also support the education realities that involve the greatest number of EFL learners in diverse teaching and learning environments

The Chinese teaching and learning context is very different from the context of the target language countries (Scovel 1983; Burnaby and Sun 1989, Gui 1985; Melton 1990; Cortazzi and Jin 1996a). The western perspective on language teaching and learning, in a way, neglects the washback effect of examinations. It is not easy at all for two distinct teaching and learning cultures to accommodate each other. The national pride of the Chinese towards their own cultures, society and history may make it even harder for them to accept new approaches and methods, particularly from the west, which will shake these traditions and cultures. It is not surprising that resistance or hurdles will be encountered especially if full and unmodified implementation is expected.

However, this does not imply that the Chinese education system will not accept improvisation and advances. There has been a series of syllabus reform at secondary

and tertiary levels since 1987. It is not my purpose to evaluate the educational reforms, although I have suggested in my previous research that the introduction of communicative language teaching in secondary schools was "half-baked" (Ng and Tang 1997, Ng and Tang 1999). The new concepts of teaching English at university level have raised serious concerns amongst teachers (Tang 2001a). The reaction from the practitioners seems to tell the reformers that there must be greater awareness of the strengths and the weaknesses of the existing system and the realism of the classroom when changes are designed, planned and implemented.

No interpretation and judgement can be correctly made regarding the education system and classroom practices in China without an understanding and respect of the Chinese characteristics of teaching and learning. This cultural framework will guide my analysis of the observation and discussions involved.

In view of the change in vocabulary requirements in the revised College English syllabus (1999), I believe it will be superficial to accept the increase in the number of words in the word list and the number of productive vocabulary items at each CEB as a solution to the lexical concerns raised by the teachers and learners. It is more important to clarify if:

i) there is an understanding of how vocabulary is acquired;

ii) the purpose of learning the vocabulary items specified in the syllabus word lists is clear;

iii) the vocabulary requirement in the syllabus is realised by the textbook writers;

iv) the teachers execute appropriate and effective vocabulary teaching methods; and,

v) a lexically rich environment is provided in the foreign language classroom.

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[i] Gui (1985:116) states that "the upsurge of foreign language learning has always been a thermometer of China's zeal for modernization". The ups and downs were manipulated by the decision-makers depending on the political and economic climate.

After the Open Door Policy in 1997, English learning was greatly promoted by the Party Leaders for patriotic reasons and economic modernisation - to obtain the latest technology and information from the West and to develop trade. English has been learnt not only for patriotic reasons of national modernisation and advancement, but also for communication and knowledge acquisition. English is now seen as the key to a vast store of readily available knowledge which is essential to speed up the modernisation process, since 85% of the scientific and technological information in world-wide informational storage and retrieval networks is in English (Anderson 1993: 472, see also Graddol 1997).

[ii] The textbook writing process in China was highly controlled. In the past, the writing was done by a designated group of professors. Secondary textbooks were subscribed centrally, and publication and distribution were carried out centrally. All English textbooks in China were published by the national People's Education Press (PEP), regarded as popular, trustworthy and authoritative. In the remote areas, there were always not enough textbooks for the students. Usually, only one set of recommended textbooks is used as the sole teaching materials throughout the country. The *College English* textbooks, which were published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, contain series on Intensive Reading, Extensive Reading, Focus Listening, Fast Reading, and Grammar and Exercises. The series have received the Best Teaching Materials Awards from the National Higher Institutions and Excellent Teaching Materials Award from the State Education Committee (Higher Institutions) and dominated the market as the sole appropriate textbooks used in the country. Although some other textbooks have emerged in the last two years, they are not as widely used and popular as this series.

[iii] In the last few years, there has been a trend towards decentralisation. In response to the policy of decentralization of "one syllabus, several textbooks", some sets of teaching materials have been produced to cater to the needs of schools in different regions according to the new syllabus (Wang 2002).However, they all need to be reviewed by the national textbook review committee under the Ministry of Education. At secondary level, Shanghai and Beijing have their own syllabus and textbooks. The coastal provinces also have their own sets of textbooks. At university, Tsinghua University and Beijing Foreign Languages University in Beijing are using their own teaching materials for the non-English major students. Also, College English teachers from universities in Henan province participated in a seminar in November 1997, held in Zhengzhou Textile Institute, to plan for their own College English textbooks as they thought that the existing textbooks are too difficult for their students. In 1999, the Chekiang University wrote a novice set of textbooks, *New College English,* which adopted an integrated-skills approach. The same year, Fudan University and Shanghai Jiaotong University jointly released a new set of textbooks, *Twenty-First Century College English*. Although there are new collections of textbook at different levels of schooling, the emphasis is still on reading and vocabulary. However, the reading passages are more up-to-

date, the exercise types are more versatile and they include more new words which are beyond the syllabus word list.

iv See Lau (1992), Hoobler and Hoobler (1993), Scollon and Scollon 1994, and Tu 1993 for reviews of Confucian thoughts. Confucius (551 – 479 B.C.) is also called 'the First Teacher" or "the Master". His discussions with his disciples, teachings and standards of conduct were recorded by his learners in the book called The Analects (*Lun Yu*). The Analects was one of the Chinese Classics (the Four Books: *Great Learning, Doctrine of the Mean, Analects* and *Meng Zi,* and the Five Classics, *Book of Poetry, Book of Rites, Book of History, Spring and Autumn Annals* and *Books of Changes*) that used to be studied extensively and thoroughly by scholars and leaders at school and for examinations until the imperial examination system was abolished in the early 20th century. Chinese leaders and scholars were all brought up on these Chinese Classics which shared Confucian thought. The Confucian system is described as "the philosophical, moral, ethical, bureaucratic and social ins and outs of a historical tradition of over 3,000 years …" (Scollon and Scollon 1994: 8). It is the social and ethical responsibility preached by Confucius.

v Examination in China has a long history. The concept of assessment and examination started in the Shang Dynasty (1700 – 1100 BC). Selective examinations and tests were introduced as a means to select talented people to serve the government as officials, and were also considered as steps towards the goal of personal exemplification and sagehood (Tu 1993). The examination system guaranteed a certain degree of social mobility and a gateway to success in traditional Chinese society (Thogersen 1990). It was norm-referenced. Academic success or failure was associated with personal achievement and the pride of parents and the family (Salili 1996). Nowadays, the examination system is a pyramid and results in progressive selection in the academic development process. There is a direct connection between school performance, academic advancement and career opportunities and the relationship between academic success and the social norm of examination is solidly affirmed.

vi The naming of a school as a key school or ordinary school started in the early 60's, was abolished during the Cultural Revolution and was reintroduced in 1977. When the concept of the key school was first established, the aim was to train specialised personnel of higher quality for the country. Children with good academic and political abilities were selected to the key schools. In the late 70's, key schools were for the educational elite. They aimed to train a small group of highly qualified scientists and cultivate them through a good educational track. In 1980, the National Key School Work Conference recommended a reduced number of key schools and altered the aim to experimenting with new teaching methods. Their current role is to produce higher quality teaching and advanced experiences for other schools to model. They are the focal point for development. All key schools receive considerable support in terms of resources and decision-making. Because of the standing of key schools, they are highly prized among students and parents and the entry competition is extremely keen.

Chapter Three

Vocabulary Acquisition: whose job is it?

More than twenty years ago, Richards (1976) called for massive vocabulary expansion in the second language program. However, the belief that vocabulary is "picked up" indirectly while engaged in grammatical or communicative activities or while reading does not encourage us to include vocabulary explicitly in the curriculum (Maiguashca 1993). Moreover, the lack of any comprehensive theory of organization or acquisition of vocabulary makes it harder to identify how FL/SL learners best learn vocabulary. As vocabulary is intrinsically complex in its subject matter and has not been systematically theorized, it is indeed not easy to specify the number, the range and the type of words to include in the syllabus. Coe (1997) claimed that planning, intensive vocabulary teaching, and the development of specific practices and exercises were impeded by the fact that vocabulary exhibits few regularities. Nevertheless, although there is no definite sequence in the acquisition process, the teaching of ESL/EFL vocabulary has been systemized somewhat by the use of a variety of criteria, such as frequency, need, teachability and learnability, etc. (see Chapter Four for the selection criteria for pedagogical word lists).

The importance of vocabulary can be seen from studies showing the close relationship between vocabulary size and success in reading (Ellis et al. 1995; Laufer 1997; Fraser 1999; Paribakht & Wesche 1999), the correlation between increase in vocabulary and increase in learners' language competence or performance (Laufer

1986), and the correlation between vocabulary growth and the productive and receptive language use (Richards 1976; Nation 1990). Although vocabulary is regarded as the most important language component in L2, it is also seen as the most problematic one (Laufer 1986; Meara 1980; Meara 1984; Nation 1990; McCarthy 1990; Ellis et al. 1995; Cortazzi and Jin 1997; Mobarg 1997).

Lexical problems of insufficient vocabulary, misinterpretation of deceptively transparent words and inability to guess unknown words correctly are found to be impeding factors for reading comprehension (Laufer 1997). Laufer suggested that the only way to tackle lexical problems is to have a larger vocabulary. She further pointed out that learners must acquire a 'threshold vocabulary' in order to achieve reading efficiency and activate reading strategies. In other words, having adequate vocabulary will assist contextual guessing and transfer of L1 learning strategies. Alderson (1984:20) also commented that "some sort of threshold or competence ceiling has to be attained before existing abilities in the first language can begin to transfer".

There is a consensus that a large vocabulary size will enable ESL/EFL learners to perform better in reading comprehension, transfer of strategies, language competence and performance and even academic success. To most teachers and learners, the core concern of how learners acquire vocabulary most effectively and efficiently remains unanswered, however.

Theories of second language acquisition have claimed that language input has a consistent positive effect in improving proficiency. These theories maintain that the input has to be comprehensible to the learner and modified through interactions. In vocabulary acquisition, the Input Hypothesis has inspired studies of incidental vocabulary learning through reading and listening and analysis of teacher's talk as oral input. The interactionist view of language learning has also brought about experimental studies into the most effective kinds of interaction for vocabulary acquisition.

3.1 The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis is part of Krashen's theory of language acquisition. Krashen (1981; 1982) asserted that we acquire language only when the input available to the learners is at the level of language development that they have reached. When the input is comprehensible to the learner, it will stimulate the operation of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) and language is then internalized and subconsciously acquired. In other words, the necessary and preliminary condition for acquisition is a match between learners' linguistic and cognitive competence. Then when learners are exposed to 'comprehensible input', i.e. linguistic forms slightly in advance of their current interlanguage system ($i + 1$), acquisition occurs. Here "*i*" represents a learner's current competence, or current level; 1 refers to the new message in the "input".

According to the Input Hypothesis, while learners are acquiring language, their focus is on the message, not the form. Thus, the acquisition process is identical to 'incidental learning', which is to be discussed in the later part of this Chapter. Although learners do not acquire the new message through conscious learning, they still need to have the consciousness or attention to recognise new material in the input (Schmidt 1990; Ellis 1994; Ellis 1995).

Krashen claimed that only comprehensible input results in more language acquisition, a hypothesis challenged by a number of other rival SLA theories. One of the challenges, evolved as a result of the development of communicative language teaching (CLT), is the "comprehensible output" hypothesis proposed by Swain (1985). According to Swain, when learners experience communication failure in communicative activities or interaction with the other speakers, they will adjust their output. The adjustment allows learners to try out new rules and acquire new language through their output. Swain claimed that more "comprehensible output" will lead to more language acquisition. In response Krashen (1994) argued that the quantity of oral and written output that could possibly be produced both in class and outside class would be inadequate to make "comprehensible output" available for acquisition.

Although Krashen has defended his Input Hypothesis over other rival theories by claiming that it gives consistent results in increasing proficiency, he has admitted that the hypothesis has its limitations. The Input Hypothesis does not help ESL learners if their proficiency is either very low or very high. In other words, less proficient ESL

learners benefit less from the Input Hypothesis as class input will not be comprehensible to them, whereas advanced learners will also obtain less *i*+1 from interaction and authentic texts as much conversation will be too ordinary and much reading too general for them. The acquisition rate will reach a plateau, slow down or even decline with more exposure. If the alleged relationship between proficiency and comprehensible input really holds true, only intermediate learners will benefit greatly under the Input Hypothesis theory.

The pedagogical implications of the Input Hypothesis are obvious. If more voluntary reading and listening is done in the classroom and if more non anxiety-provoking language activities which focus on communication rather than correction of error takes place, more comprehensible input will be generated. This will then result in more language acquisition. It has to be pointed out that the emphasis on learning through obtaining adequate input from reading and listening has led to the belief that speaking and writing are not the cause of learning but the outcome of the learning process (Lightbown and Spada 1993).

3.2 The Interactionist theory

Some argue that comprehensible input is a necessary if not sufficient condition for second language acquisition. The condition in which input is made comprehensible is therefore of great concern. Long (1981; 1983) argued that verbal interaction, rather than reading and listening, can better create the condition necessary and sufficient for second language acquisition to take place. He alleged that modifications to the

interactional structure of conversations observed between native and non-native speakers, which take place in the process of negotiating solutions to communication problems, help to make input comprehensible to the learner. According to Mackey (1995), however, the gains from interactionally modified input are developmental ones and they may not register any immediate effect on acquisition

The interaction hypothesis is further supported by Pica (1987). She claims that if learners initiate negotiation of meaning in classes, even if they are not directly involved in the negotiation, they will benefit from comprehension and also long-term retention of L2 vocabulary. But she argues that not all learners need to rely on negotiation to comprehend input. Those with low levels of comprehension will benefit most from interaction, just as intermediate level learners benefit most from the Input Hypothesis. Given the constraints of the two language learning hypotheses, no single SLA theory seems to identify the best condition for successful language learning.

In the 90's, a weaker form of the interaction hypothesis was put forward. Ellis (1991) claimed that comprehension does not necessarily lead to acquisition. Although comprehension is a necessary condition for learning to take place, the processes responsible for comprehension and for acquisition are not the same. Ellis argued that it is not the comprehensible input, but rather the input which is not comprehensible to the learners that raises their awareness of new material and fosters acquisition.

Ellis (1995) further claimed that not all interactional modifications facilitated acquisition. In his experimental study examining the effects of input/interaction on the comprehension and acquisition of concrete nouns, he found that no particular condition of interactional modification was superior to the others. Ellis assigned Japanese ESL learners three learning conditions: a baseline group with unmodified input (UMI), a premodified input (PMI) group and an interactionally modified input (IMI) group. The difference among these three groups was the treatment of the target items, i.e. the words that the subjects did not know. These words were taught to the groups through different types of input/interaction. The PMI group were presented with many more repetitions of the words than the UMI group; while the IMI group was given chances to negotiate the word meaning with the teacher. All subjects then took part in posttests in which they were asked to provide the Japanese equivalents for the target items. In a follow-up test, the subjects were given a picture and a list of the target items in English, and were asked to label the picture with the target items. The scores were interpreted according to comprehension and vocabulary acquisition measures. If learners were able to identify the right objects and label them in the correct locations in the matrix picture in the follow up test, comprehension was demonstrated. If they performed correctly in both the translation posttests and the picture-identification follow-up test, vocabulary acquisition was assured. Results showed that when no interaction was allowed, the number of words from the teacher had a significantly positive effect on vocabulary acquisition. It further indicated that the PMI group did better than UMI group. In the IMI group, higher word frequency items were better acquired. Over-elaborated modified input was negatively related to

word meaning acquisition. This coincides with Chaudron's (1982) observation that over-elaborate input resulting from negotiation hindered comprehension rather than facilitated it.

Ellis's study has high pedagogical value because it provided an indication of the best type of input for vocabulary acquisition in different classroom contexts. Although the acquisition scores of the IMI group were higher, the acquisition rate was low when compared with the PMI group. The PMI group showed a two to three times higher rate of acquisition than the IMI group. Although input from the teacher that involved interaction helped more with the acquisition of word meaning, it required more class time, and Ellis (1995) noted that the PMI is actually more efficient in promoting vocabulary acquisition if efficiency is calculated in terms of the number of words acquired per minute. This is encouraging in language pedagogy. He said:

> "It suggests that where it is difficult for learners to negotiate understanding – as in very large classrooms or classrooms where learners, for cultural reasons, are not predisposed to negotiate – adequate input for vocabulary acquisition can be provided through premodification." (429)

Despite the longer time and lower rate, interaction is seen as an important tool for better comprehension and vocabulary learning. However, in a further study, Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1995) reported that the IMI group scored better than the PMI group only in the first posttests, and in the second posttest the PMI groups almost caught up with the IMI group. In the follow up test, there was no significant

difference between the two groups. If acquisition is incremental and probably a recursive process as suggested by Gass (1999), direct participation seems to promote comprehension but not acquisition. Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1995) also found that learners who engaged in active meaning negotiation did not enjoy a clear advantage in either comprehension or vocabulary acquisition over those who just listened to lock step instruction as in the PMI group.

In another experimental study of interaction in vocabulary learning, Ellis and He (1999) found that modified output which involves learner-learner negotiation of meaning was most helpful in aiding comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. They divided learners into three experimental groups: a premodified input (PMI) group, an interactionally modified input (IMI) group, and a modified output (MO) group. The first group underwent the same kind of treatment as that adopted in Ellis (1995) and Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1995), described previously. The MO group received instructions and examples from the teacher before they negotiated in pairs whilst completing the task: a listen-and-do comprehension of directions. The subjects then took five posttests to measure their ability to recognise the meaning of the target words. Results showed that the modified output group achieved higher comprehension and vocabulary acquisition scores. Ellis and He observed that:

"interaction that provides opportunities for learners to use and negotiate new vocabulary items in dialogically symmetrical discourse seems to create better conditions for incidental vocabulary acquisition than interaction in teacher-controlled

exchanges that restrict the kind of intermental activity claimed to foster learning" (299).

The three studies conducted by Ellis and his co-researchers into the role of oral input and output in incidental vocabulary acquisition seem to suggest that interaction, whether teacher-initiated or learner-centred, facilitates comprehension. However, there is no proof that such interaction leads to acquisition and that it is superior to non-interactive input. All three studies, however, concluded that teacher-controlled exchanges were also successful in promoting vocabulary learning. And it seems that provided that they are presented with appropriate input, learners will learn regardless of whether they directly or indirectly participate in interaction. More observation and more empirical data are needed to see what kinds of vocabulary instructions are given in the ESL/EFL classroom and whether teachers in real classroom settings provide premodified input, interactionally modified input and opportunities for premodified output of the kinds described by Ellis and his co-researchers.

In his previous work, Ellis (1988; 1994) noted that active participation might be over-valued in the study of vocabulary acquisition. His studies on oral input seem to imply that vocabulary acquisition does not rely solely on comprehensible input or interaction. Learners acquire words when they receive well-informed and comprehended input, with or without interaction. They also acquire words when the input is incomprehensible, with or without interaction. In short, learners acquire words in no defined learning conditions as long as they pay attention to the presence of the new words.

Awareness of the input seems to the key factor in learning new words. In intentional and direct teaching and learning of vocabulary, teachers explicitly teach the new words and learners are aware that the taught items will be tested afterwards. Thus, conscious effort is expected. In incidental learning of vocabulary, learners are exposed to the words available without any explicit treatment of the words and they are not aware that they will be tested on these words at a later date. However, conscious attention is also involved in the learning process.

3.3 Incidental learning

Incidental learning is considered as the most effective way for substantial vocabulary growth. It is defined as "the ability to pick up L2 items and rules while ….. attention is focused primarily on trying to communicate, i.e. understanding and conveying messages" (Schmidt 1990: 1). But incidental learning does not imply an effortless learning. This also requires a degree of consciousness because learners must notice new items and rules in the input. This also requires a great intensity of the language and learners' involvement in order to be an effective condition for implicit learning.

Incidental vocabulary learning is a "by-product" of other language, cognitive or social activities (Maiguashca 1993; Gass 1999; Wesche and Paribakht 1999; Wode 1999). It involves the noticing of the meaning through repetition and repeated reading/listening and allows learners to acquire words unconsciously while learning new knowledge or

competencies from voluntary reading, from the teacher or from anyone in the classroom.

Krashen (1989) reviewed 144 studies of conditions for vocabulary acquisition, of which three dealt with L2 acquisition. These studies showed that incidental vocabulary acquisition occurs through the operation of his Input Hypothesis, and when reading serves as the comprehensible input, acquisition takes place naturally. During the acquisition process, the linguistic structure and the explicit goal of learning new words are not the focus of the activity. The focus is on comprehending the meaning in the message of the communicative activity or graded reading passage which incorporate the new vocabulary items.

The view that words are 'picked up" is also shared by psycholinguists. Hulstijn (1992: 2) attested that a SL/FL learner could never achieve native-like vocabulary through intentional learning "no matter how effective their memorization or practice strategies are, they simply do not have the time to learn that amount of vocabulary intentionally".

There has been considerable discussion about incidental vocabulary learning through reading (Krashen 1984; Hulstijn 1992; Nation and Coady 1988; Huckin and Coady 1999). It is believed that most new L2 word learning beyond the 1st few thousand words in common oral use occurs through reading, and that if university learners need as many as 10,000 words to recognise and understand their study (Hazenberg and

Hulstijn 1996), they need to read extensively to reach this level. The notion of reading to gain more vocabulary makes written texts a vital input source for L2 learners at more advanced proficiency levels.

But incidental learning (or acquisition, as Krashen (1986) puts it) is a gradual and incremental process. As in L1 vocabulary acquisition, it requires multiple exposures to a word in various collocations and in various situations. Saragi, Nation and Meister (1978) suggested that at least ten exposures are needed while Nation (1990) proposes five to sixteen. In the study of difficulty in learning words from textual context, Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) estimated that the chance of learning a word after only one encounter is between 10 and 15 percent. Success in acquiring new words relies heavily on the opportunities for recursive encounters. So far, no agreement over the number of exposures has been reached, but design initiatives should include the adaptation of texts to provide optimal conditions for both meeting and learning new words. The density of unknown words should not be too high, and the opportunities for repeated exposure should be optimised (Coxhead 2000).

Some have argued that extensive reading for meaning does not necessarily lead to vocabulary acquisition. Acquisition success depends on a variety of factors – the vocabulary size of the reader, the types of clue available in the context, and the learner's inventory of word knowledge. As noted by Wesche and Paribakht (1999), in order to guess words correctly, learners have to have passed a vocabulary threshold and have prior knowledge of the subject matter. Without the threshold vocabulary,

guessing can lead to imprecision, misrecognition and interference with the reading process.

Interest in incidental vocabulary acquisition includes a consideration not only of extensive reading as comprehensible input but also exposure to oral input. The most frequent words in a language tend to be learned first and, in naturalistic contexts, are largely learned from oral input (Nation and Hwang 1995; Wesche and Paribaht 1999). The importance of oral input for incidental vocabulary acquisition is substantiated by the success of children developing a substantial vocabulary in their L1 before going to school (Ellis 1994; 1995). Ellis's belief that oral input serves as a potential source to facilitate vocabulary acquisition is supported by the fact that many L2 learners, like L1 learners, rely on oral input as the primary source of information about the target language, especially in the early stages of acquisition. Like native speakers, L2 learners listen to the language, engage in interaction, identify the forms and the meanings of new words, remember them and use them. It can be assumed that this process of acquisition is an incidental one. Often learners do not set out to learn new words. Learning is just a by-product of engaging in the attempt to communicate orally with other speakers of the language.

A number of studies have affirmed the role of oral input in incidental vocabulary acquisition (Brown 1993; Newton 1995; Ellis 1995; Ellis et. al 1994; Ellis and He 1999). Ellis (1994) identified four factors which affect incidental vocabulary learning from oral input. They are the intrinsic word properties (part of speech, distinctiveness

of word form, length of word form, correlation between form meaning and imageability), input factors (frequency, saliency through 'focus', availability of contextual cues and input complexity), interactional factors (resulting in more input, resulting in elaborated output) and learner factors (background knowledge, procedural knowledge, immediate phonological memory and the learner's L1). He also noted that incidental learning from oral input involves the utilization of various cues and inferring the meanings of new items from context. However, it is argued that whilst redundant cues enable learners to guess unknown words successfully, such cues also make it less likely for the learners to learn the word form, as the text is comprehended without needing to know the form (Coady 1993).

Brown, Sagers and LaPorte (1999) compared the effect of different modes of learner-teacher interaction on incidental vocabulary acquisition. They analysed an average of 9.1 written dialogue journals and 8.9 oral dialogue journals from nine advanced EFL learners at university. The type-token ratio was used as a measure of lexical richness in the two modes. Results showed that teachers produced more text in the spoken mode than in the written mode. This implies that learners are exposed to more opportunities in the oral mode to encounter new words and acquire them incidentally, although the teachers' spoken type-token ratio was half the size of that for the written text. In order to find quantitative evidence of incidental vocabulary acquisition, they used the first journal as a baseline and compared it with the rest of the journals to find out the 'possibly acquired words'. There was evidence to suggest that learners possibly acquired up to a third more words from the oral mode, 10% of the types

produced by the teacher from the oral mode and the written mode. Of these, 87% of possibly acquired words matched the teacher's meaning. The study suggested that when there are lexical gaps (Krashen's Input Hypothesis) and if learners are interested in the topic (personal interests and emotional involvement), subsequent acquisition is observed. In terms of the mode of communication, both written and oral interaction promoted the use and acquisition of words. There was also a suggestion that in natural two-way communication when learners can ask direct questions about word meaning, they learn more.

Incidental vocabulary acquisition is possible not only through extensive reading but through exposure to oral input. In the FL/SL environment where the classroom is the principal source of vocabulary learning, the availability of words from the teacher and the textbooks is crucial in creating a lexical environment for incidental acquisition. However, there have been only limited studies concerning the availability of lexis in the FL/SL classroom.

3.4 Classrooms as lexical environments

Recent research has placed great emphasis on interactional modifications in language acquisition. In an ESL classroom, however, there is actually little opportunity to communicate or interact in the target language or hear it used for communicative purposes by others (Long 1983; Krashen 1994). Such a context creates an unfavourable linguistic environment for language acquisition.

In an 'input-poor environment' (Kouraogo 1993), FL/SL learners have little opportunity to hear or read the language outside or even inside the classroom. The source of language is principally restricted to the teacher and the textbook. Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997) conducted a study to see if the FL classroom provides a lexically rich environment for acquisition. They collected ten 500 token speech samples from ten teachers teaching intensive communicative ESL classes to children of 11-12 in Quebec in order to estimate the number of new and unusual words learners are typically exposed to in second/foreign language classrooms. Only the teacher's speech was analysed. The type-token ratio was used as a measure of lexical richness and word lists generated from the teachers' speech were compared with Nation's list (1986) for the classification of high frequency or unusual words. A large number of unusual words, beyond the four levels of Nation's list, were taken to indicate a lexically rich classroom environment, whilst absence or extreme rarity of unusual words/basic vocabulary was regarded as an indicator of a poor lexical environment, implying a slow vocabulary growth among learners. Results showed that all ten teachers had similar type-token ratios. None of the classes were particularly rich in terms of the number of different words used by the teachers. The overall rate of unusual words was 2.75 per 500 words. However, the study did not provide conclusive evidence that the ESL/EFL classroom in the communicative setting provided a rich lexical environment. The researchers suggested that learners need greater access to written text, more free voluntary reading and more explicit instruction to learn more words.

Since the classroom is the place where comprehensible input, modified interaction and exposure are available, it has great potential to facilitate L2 acquisition (Tsui 1985). As Krashen (1981, 1982) asserts, the classroom serves as a formal linguistic environment to acquire and learn the language. In terms of vocabulary acquisition, when comprehensible input and modified interaction are to be provided or initiated by the teacher, the study of how teachers create conditions for vocabulary acquisition becomes important. If vocabulary is largely acquired incidentally, it is therefore essential to study the classroom discourse in a teacher-centred context in order to check the availability of words for the FL/SL learners to 'pick up' from this formal linguistic environment.

It is not clear how a lexically rich environment in the FL/SL classroom can be created. It is also not clear how learners' attention can be drawn to the new words when the input is comprehensible or incomprehensible and when interaction exists or does not exist. It is generally accepted, however, that learners need extensive exposure for successful vocabulary acquisition. Wode (1999) argued for the superiority of immersion over traditional foreign language instructional contexts for incidental vocabulary acquisition, pointing out that immersion allows more contact and exposures to the language. Wode explored the effectiveness of English immersion (IM) in promoting the development of lexical competence, assuming that IM offers plenty of exposures and opportunities for incidental learning. IM denotes the method of teaching and promoting a language by using it as a medium of instruction, irrespective of how much teaching time is allowed, and is the closest

equivalent to naturalistic language acquisition available within the school context. Wode's study showed that an immersion class where English was used as a medium of instruction resulted in more vocabulary acquisition in terms of more types and tokens, synonyms and word diversity than a class in which English was merely the subject to be studied. Wode's findings suggest that IM offers more opportunities for incidental learning and creates better opportunities for learners to activate their language learning abilities for the development of lexical competence. However, such teaching situations can only be possible when all subject teachers are proficient in English and all teaching materials are available in English.

Some researchers have added other factors to complement the incidental acquisition of words through exposure. Such factors include explicit instruction (Wesche and Paribakht 1999), the opportunity to produce new lexical items communicatively and to negotiate their meanings interactively with the teacher and other learners (Ellis et al. 1995; Ellis and He 1999), and personal interest and emotional involvement in the input (Hulstjn 1992; Wesche and Paribakht 1999).

Many language learning experts believe that opportunity for indirect vocabulary learning should occupy much more time in a language learning course than direct vocabulary learning (Nation 1990: 3). None of the studies reported above have disregarded the role of explicit instruction, however. Explicit instruction does have its role and the two instructional approaches are complementary (Coady and Huckin 1997). It would appear that learners benefit most when explicit instruction works in

conjunction with implicit vocabulary instruction through extensive reading. Positive results are shown especially when interaction and feedback are involved (Coady and Huckin 1997; Huckin and Coady 1999).

3.5 Direct teaching

Depending whether the focus of attention is on form or on meaning, teaching and learning of vocabulary is divided into two approaches: explicit/direct or implicit/indirect. The implicit/indirect approach, enabling learners to "pick up" words through exposure, has been discussed in the previous section. Although Krashen (1985) alleged that "conscious learning" does not make a major contribution to competence, he did not undervalue direct teaching through involving learners in non-anxiety-provoking communication activities at an appropriate competence level.

Direct teaching is defined in the *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* as:

> "an approach to teaching which seeks to increase achievement by focussing the teacher's attention on specific, analytical and academic objectives, by coverage of objectives to be tested, by engagement of students in tasks, and by giving feedback which focuses on the degree to which objectives have been achieved. Attention is given to promoting students' success in learning through a teacher-directed style of teaching in which the teacher provides a favourable climate for learning."
>
> (Richards, Platt & Platt 1992: 110)

Direct or explicit teaching concentrates on "the ability to focus primary attention on the language code itself in order to try to learn new L2 items and rules" ((Schmidt 1990: 1). It involves doing vocabulary exercises and activities, such as word-building, guessing, class exercises, learning lists, games, rote learning, regular testing, strategy training and strategy assessment.

Some researchers have argued that most vocabulary must be learned incidentally, rather than with instructional intent. They maintain that learners can acquire knowledge of a great number of words incidentally and direct instruction helps little in acquisition of word meanings (Herman and Dole 1988; Krashen 1989; Hulstijn 1992). Ellis (1990: 134-135) reviewed fifteen empirical studies which compared the effectiveness of instruction and exposure on the rate and success of L2 acquisition. The disparity of the results suggested, however, that there is no clear evidence to show the superiority of direct teaching over exposure or vice versa.

Much current research has shown that direct teaching has no measurable impact on grammar. However, in a study comparing the effects of implicit and explicit instructions on learning grammatical structures in a self-study mode, deGraaff (1997) found favourable results. Learners were provided with computer-based materials containing either implicit or explicit instructions in an artificial language during a 15-hour course. In both conditions, learners were given equal exposure to the target language forms but no explicit explanation of grammar was given to the implicit learning group. Results from the post-tests showed that explicit instructions worked

better for four grammatical structures of the artificial language. Krashen (1994) generalised from other research work and remarked that explicit instruction did show positive results even though it was not consistent.

There are arguments for and against direct teaching of vocabulary. Chall (1987) questioned why direct teaching of vocabulary to learners is not properly recognised. There is some evidence to suggest that courses that involve direct attention to language features will result in better learning than courses that rely solely on incidental learning (Long 1988; Ellis 1990). Nation (1990) argues, however, that the direct teaching and learning of words, whether from a wordlist or textbooks, must be combined with rich instruction or substantial quantities of regular sustained reading (Nation 1990). There are others who believe that there are too many words to teach and too much about the words to be learnt. Thus, when there is just too little precious class time, direct teaching is simply not realistic.

Whatever the relative value of explicit and implicit instruction, it appears that a structured direct vocabulary teaching programme can help learners with the development of a systematic and progressive approach towards different types of vocabulary. Such a programme also seems to help learners to develop effective vocabulary learning strategies for better recall and retention of words. Moreover, direct vocabulary teaching can give learners a quicker and more direct way to understand the different aspects of word knowledge. Furthermore, direct teaching of

vocabulary can result in the incidental learning of other words, especially when instructions are given in the target language.

3.6 Vocabulary instruction

Teaching techniques are often considered as important tools to help realize our concept of what it means to know a word (Richards 1976). Vocabulary instruction varies according to the theory and belief of how language is learnt. Zimmerman (1997) has summarized the development of vocabulary instruction according to different philosophies of language teaching/learning at different periods of time (see Appendix 3 for the summary of the historical development of vocabulary instruction).

Thus there is no single effective way of teaching and learning vocabulary. Nation (1990) argues that one should not ignore, neglect, reject or dismiss any effective method. Although studying list of words out of context and rote learning may be criticized as meaningless activities, they can be effective learning methods. Nation (1990) argued that list learning can be an effective way of acquiring vocabulary within a short period of time, while Richards (1976) asserted that some learners find rote memorization effective even though it might not be justifiable on theoretical grounds.

There are a number of resource books which focus on the operational level of teaching a word and are very useful to the teachers, for example, Carter and McCarthy (1988), Nation (1990), Taylor (1990, 1992). The teaching strategies

described in these books can broadly be categorized into two groups: non-verbal and verbal. Non-verbal teaching methods include: using objects, using drawings, using pictures, demonstration, using gestures (paralinguistic or non-paralinguistic), etc. Verbal teaching methods include: using synonyms or antonyms, paraphrasing, exemplification, dictionary definitions, discussing the word form, working on collocation, taking notes, drawing attention to the words, L1 explanation. To help learners to recall and to help teachers keep track of the vocabulary learning progress, periodic tests on the meanings of word parts, derivatives, collocations, definitions and translation are suggested (Nation 1996). Collocation and grammatical constructions are regarded as major linguistic obstacles that inhibit learners from using vocabulary correctly (Summers 1995).

Coady (1997) proposed a three-step vocabulary teaching method which involved providing explicit instruction and practice for the 3,000 most common words, then assigning reading tasks according to learners' interests and finally creating opportunity for incidental learning of vocabulary through autonomous reading.

Herman and Dole (1988) outlined three other methods of vocabulary instruction – definitional, contextual and conceptual. They argued that the most effective method of learning a word is through definition and context. The conceptual method is recommended when the word is crucial to understanding a text. Contextualized activities are encouraged as they cover the range of the uses of language, whereas

decontextualized activities have less contact with language use and do not reflect real life vocabulary usage (Nation 1990).

Nation (1996) proposed several different methods of teaching vocabulary. For example: in wordlist learning, he suggested that teachers should first check individually with learners what words they know by asking them to spell the word, give a rough definition or translate the word and say what other words it goes with. Once difficult words have been identified, the teacher should develop activities, e.g. by putting word pairs on cards and altering their order, in order to promote receptive or productive learning through helping learners recall meanings without seeing the words again.

No matter what strategy or strategies is/are used in teaching vocabulary, there needs to be careful consideration and monitoring. According to Carter (1996), a dictionary is of great value to ESL learners, but prolonged dependency on bilingual dictionaries probably tends to retard the development of second-language proficiency. Another way of learning vocabulary is using the L1. Providing an L1 explanation is the easiest, quickest and handiest way to give the meaning of a word and to teach/learn a large amount of vocabulary in a short time. L1 words with a similar sound can help in memorisation. But if the teaching solely relies on L1 translation without a context, such de-linking of the word meaning from its context does not help with acquiring word knowledge (Coady and Huckin 1997). For this reason, contextual exercises should be provided

Effective vocabulary instruction must be accompanied by systematic ways of presenting vocabulary for successive vocabulary growth. It is generally agreed that there is a need to deal with high-frequency words although these may not be difficult to learn. Nation (2001:16) suggested a combined way that includes direct teaching, direct learning, incidental learning and planned encounters. The teacher explains the words explicitly while learners make use of word cards and dictionaries to learn. In addition, learners read extensively to practise guessing from context, take part in communication activities, and complete structured vocabulary exercises.

In discussing the pedagogical implications of the *Academic Word List* for vocabulary acquisition, Coxhead (1998) and Coxhead and Nation (2001) listed four ways of teaching academic vocabulary. First, listening to academic lectures or reading texts gives meaning focused input; second, direct teaching, word analysis and word cards focus on language learning; third, speaking and writing in academic contexts help produce meaning focused output; and, finally, working with texts that are within the learners' proficiency promotes fluency.

Arnaud and Savignon (1997) suggested that at advanced level teachers should pay attention to rare words and complex lexical units that might appear more frequently in conversation. It is always difficult to decide what to teach at different levels. For example, in China, all lectures are conducted in L1 and all teacher-student and student-student communication and discussion of academic texts is also conducted in

L1. Chinese students therefore do not need L2 academic words in order to study effectively unless they have the chance to be sent abroad for further study or they need to access internet resources in English. Most learners seem to need other types of word in order to read non-academic materials on the web and to fulfil work related communication needs with foreign working partners in future. The attention and design initiative of vocabulary teaching in China should bear these characteristics in mind in developing syllabus and teaching programmes.

Nation (1990) distinguished the teaching of high and low frequency words in terms of cost/benefit. The cost or effort required to learn and teach is worth the benefit in terms of text coverage. For high frequency words, the benefit is high. So it is worth spending time to teach them. For low frequency words, more attention should be given to strategies rather than direct teaching, e.g. guessing from context; word parts and keywords; deep processing techniques to learn words in isolation. However, decisions regarding how to teach should be made on the grounds of the learners' needs and learning style.

Research on vocabulary instruction in L2 has attempted to understand how vocabulary teaching methods help learners learn vocabulary. The majority of the studies concern the conditions where vocabulary is best learnt and retained, the effectiveness of a particular approach to vocabulary teaching or the applicability of new vocabulary teaching methods.

One of the most problematic aspects of vocabulary teaching and learning is the memorization and recall of new words. Studies of vocabulary teaching and learning differentiate deep processing from surface processing by the effectiveness of retaining and recalling. Deep processing is considered a more effective way to learn vocabulary as it promotes active processing. The teacher needs to teach words in such a way that learners can store the meaning in multi-sensory perceptions that involve their own judgement, differentiation and experience (McWilliam1998). For example: the teaching of "stone" and "pebble" together will provoke the learner to think about the size, texture and context for these words.

Drills and rote memorisation can be methods which only develop surface L2 fluency, and may not promote conceptual understanding. Drills for example are pure imitation and do not lead to active processing (McWilliam 1998). However, rote memorisation can be a deep strategy depending on the learning intention and the strategic choice (see Chapter Two, Section 2.4). Lenko-Szymanska (1996) affirmed the role of memory in vocabulary learning and teaching and suggested ways in which memory might help at different teaching stages of presentation, practice and consolidation.

Definition-type exercises involving the use of words in context, class discussion which raises word consciousness, semantic feature analysis and semantic mapping that clusters words in categories are suggested as means to encourage "deep" processing (Stahl 1986). This learning process continues with multiple exposures and

repetition. Through reading and through repeated use by trial and error in writing and speaking, the words will be internalised in the learners' long-term memories.

Mnemonics methods such as imaging and keyword mediations are said to be effective in promoting deep processing (see Cohen and Aphek 1980, Lenko-Szymanska 1996). But the majority of research in this field has been conducted in the laboratory, there have been few research findings relating to its effectiveness in the classroom.

Mnemonic devices are basically 'paired associate learning, i.e. matching a word with its L1 equivalent to build up shared imaging (mental representations). It involves building up associations with phonetically similar L1 words and then associating these with the L1 translation by means of a striking visual image (Meara 1980). There is a popular example among Cantonese-speakers of English learning the word 'tuxedo' in the target language. They remember the pronunciation of 'tuxedo' by substituting the sound with 'tag say tuo' in L1, meaning 'kick the rabbit to death'. In this case, the association neglects word meaning and accurate pronunciation, but learners could visualise a rabbit wearing a tuxedo. Another example is well known to many senior Cantonese immigrants to Canada. They are taught to remember "sit down" in L2 as "sig done' in L1, which means "switch off the light". Again, the learners could visualise switching off the light and sitting down.

These two examples illustrate two features concerning the keyword method.

First, polysyllabic English words may not work well when Chinese speakers use this technique. Chinese words are monosyllabic and the L1-L2 association of Chinese and English does not indicate the stressed syllable of the target word as the concept of the stressed syllable does not exist in the Chinese language.

Second, although the senior Cantonese immigrants, who do not have an English education background, found it useful to learn a new language using familiar sound of their L1, certain type of learners will find this method more helpful than others. Yeung and Heyworth (1992) reported in their empirical study that the keyword method was found to be effective in enhancing immediate recall and delayed recall among low ability learners. It appears that the keyword method works best if the L2 proficiency of the learners is low.

McWilliam (1998) recommended 'paired associate learning' in teaching figurative/ metaphoric use of words from idiomatic/literary English text. Harley (1995) found the keyword technique useful only for receptive L2 vocabulary learning with words that were easily imageable. Her view was in accord with Meara's (1980) comment that keyword methods are more effective for learning words for comprehension rather than learning them for generation.

3.7 Levels of lexical difficulty

Corson (1997) also pointed out that concrete and highly imageable words are more readily accessible for keyword and mnemonic learning approaches than academic

words, as the learning of such words depends on familiarity with the rules of use within the academic meaning systems. Added to this, academic words tend to be non-concrete, moderate-to-low in frequency, low in imagery and semantically opaque (Coxhead 2000, Nation 1990). These kinds of words are difficult to learn by any method.

According to the dual-code theory perspective, the imageability of word and the level of lexical difficulty are related (Paivio 1979, 1986). His dual-code theory distinguished the representational system into verbal (V) and imaginal (Im). Although they function independently, the representations in one system can activate the other because of the dually coded effect (verbal and nonverbal) and are connected by referential links. The visual component is better remembered than the verbal component. Thus, according to Paivio's model, if words are learned in direct association with visual referents, for example, objects, events, emotions, this will result in better recall and use.

Imageability in the stimulus position is normally influential (Paivio 1979). When learning words of high imageability, more information is available from the second (visual) source than is the case for words with lower imageability. According to Paivio, all word category effects, word frequency effects and word concreteness effects are to be explained in terms of imageability. In other words, nouns and adjectives, which are mostly high frequency words, are often concrete words which easily prompt the formation of images. These words are of high imageability.

Abstract words, on the other hand, have less information stored with them than concrete words. Thus there is less availability of information to trigger the network model of memory and they are therefore difficult to learn and remember. But the relationship between availability of information and the level of lexical difficulty might not be consistent. Griffins (1992) argues that the more information there is available, the more difficult it will probably be to access the relevant portion of that information, due to the large number of association links.

If academic words are important for academic success, as Coxhead and Nation (2001) have argued, the control of Graeco-Latin academic vocabulary is important. A knowledge of word-formation may help learners to understand or predict the meaning of these words. Although exposure to specialist Graeco-Latin words happens much more often in reading than in casual conversation, Corson (1997) suggests that the teaching of Graeco-Latin academic words should involve more participation in oral discourse. These activities include teacher talk (basic assistance for academic learning), talk about text, and later dialogue (after class). The vocabulary for reading could be different from vocabulary for speaking, but only through engaging in talk that uses the appropriate patterns, in this case the academic semantic system, can learners acquire explicit and implicit knowledge of academic words (Corson 1997).

According to Paivio's dual-code theory, the visual presentation of a word is better remembered than its verbal presentation. Thus, nouns and adjectives which are of

high imageability are easier to learn as the mental images of these words are more readily accessed (Read 2000). According to Griffins (1992), abstract nouns and verbs are the two most difficult word classes in terms of learnability. This implies that it is worth spending more time on the teaching of these types of words.

3.8 Studies of vocabulary size

There have been many different estimations of the vocabulary size of native speakers, raising the question of how many words an EFL/ESL learner might need. Goulden, Nation and Read (1990) estimated 20,000 word families for average English-speaking university students. Meara (1997) investigated the vocabulary size of native English speakers educated up to 18, and reckoned that they knew at least 16,000 English 'word families'. Willis (1990) asserted that adult native speakers are likely to have 50,000 words while Nagy and Herman (1987) estimated that senior high school students know about 40,000 words. There are always methodological problems involved in interpreting the figures, for example, the different definition of what a "word" is and the different methods that the researchers used to measure vocabulary size. The dictionary sampling method (see Goulden, Nation and Read 1990) gives a different result from a vocabulary knowledge test based on frequency counts (see Meara 1990).

Although there is no consensus on the vocabulary size of native speakers of English, these studies have led to the consideration of the teaching and learning tasks facing both second language teachers and learners. A simple calculation indicates that if

foreign language or second language university graduates are to attain the vocabulary size of native speakers of roughly 20,000 word families, which is taken to include a base word, its inflected forms and its regular derived forms (Bauer and Nation 1993), they have to learn about 1,250 new words per year or three to four words per day starting from the age of five.

Yoshida (1978) surveyed some young Japanese SL learners whose parents did not speak English at all, spending two to three hours a day in a nursery for seven months. It was found that these children learned 260 to 300 productive words and 2.2 times more receptive vocabulary during this period. Barnard (1961) & Quinn (1968) studied SL learners in India and found that after five years of learning with four to five classes per week, these learners had a vocabulary of 1,000 to 2,000 words. Jamieson (1976) evaluated the vocabulary level of Tokelauan children in New Zealand and found that they were two years behind their native-speaker classmates who knew several thousand words. The rate of learning new words shown in these studies is much slower than the rate needed to catch up with native speakers.

Some researchers have shown a specific relationship between sight vocabulary and the recognition of text (see Table 1 below). Sight vocabulary is referred as "words whose forms and common meanings are recognised automatically, irrespective of context" (Laufer 1997: 22). Although there is no consistency in the methodology and no consensus on the optimum vocabulary size of an ESL/EFL learner, they all seem to agree that there is a "threshold" level for successful reading.

Table 1: Summary of studies of vocabulary size

	vocabulary size
Diller (1978)	▪ 10,000 words to read medium difficulty materials
Laufer (1989)	▪ 5,000 words to achieve reading accuracy of 56% ▪ 6,400 words to achieve reading accuracy of 63% ▪ 9,000 words to achieve reading accuracy of 70%
Nation (1990), Laufer (1997)	▪ a sight vocabulary of 3,000 or so most-frequent word families for general text comprehension with a prior knowledge of at least 95% of the words in a text
Nation (1992)	▪ 5,000 word families or 8,000 lexical items to read for pleasure with 98% coverage
Hirsh and Nation (1992), Coady et al. (1993), Laufer (1997)	▪ a sight vocabulary of about 5,000 word families to understand 98% of the words in the text for successful contextual guessing
Nation and Hwang (1995)	▪ a sight vocabulary of 2,000 most-frequent word families to recognize and use approximately 84% of the words in a wide range of texts
Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996)	▪ a minimal sight vocabulary of 10,000 word families to understand the coverage of 99% - 100% of the university level texts

In successful reading, the automatic recognition of a large vocabulary enables learners to use higher level processing strategies and frees their cognitive resources (Laufer 1997). This is especially true when unusable contextual clues exist. When clues exist in the text that are unknown or unfamiliar to learners or which are misleading, partial or suppressed, learners with just threshold vocabulary have no way of guessing from the context. Under such circumstances, more lexical items are needed to allow a minimum of 95% text coverage for successful reading.

The first large scale vocabulary survey of the vocabulary size of Chinese learners in China was conducted in 1981 by Prof. Gui Shichun, aiming at collecting data for future national syllabus design and curriculum development. Gui (1983) calculated the number of words that Chinese learners could recognise from reading text. Gui randomly picked out two hundred words from the first 10,000 most commonly used words from *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 words* (Thorndike and Lodge 1944). The two hundred words were then divided into eight groups corresponding to eight frequency bands. The different forms of each word were treated as individual words and there were twenty words in each of the first seven groups and sixty words in the last group. Multiple choice questions were asked in the test in which learners chose from four possible Chinese equivalents the one that best matched the given English word. The test involved 286 students at secondary and university levels. From this survey, Gui calculated that secondary school students knew 1,200 words and graduate students knew 6,000 words.

The most striking issue of this study is the difference in vocabulary size between secondary school students and university graduates. If a university student only takes two years to acquire these 4,800 words, as most non-English major students do, he will have to learn 6.6 words per day or more than 17 words in each hour of the English lesson. The rate of acquisition is even faster than that of the native speakers who acquire at the rate of 3 words per day in their early life, as suggested by Nation in his interview with Schmidt (Schmidt 1995). Gui's study is particularly important in the study of vocabulary teaching and the lexical environment in China. The mysterious background and operation behind the possible rate of acquisition in the input-poor environment where English is learnt principally from the foreign language classroom through teacher and textbooks awaits to be unveiled.

Following Gui's method of study, Yan and Yang (1992) investigated the relationship between students' alleged total vocabulary size and the vocabulary size proposed by most textbooks and syllabuses. They selected five classes of approximately 140 students who attained CET 4 to take part in the test. They adopted Gui's method of measuring vocabulary size to test the total recognition vocabulary size and the extent of students' knowledge of the College English Teaching Syllabus wordlist. Results showed that students recognized 3,000 words from the College English wordlist which is below the vocabulary requirement for CEB4. The majority of the students could recognise 70% of the selected CET wordlist. About 10% of them reached 80% of the vocabulary requirement and only 1.4% achieved 90%. In terms of their own vocabulary size, one of the classes approached 5,000 and the other four had a total

vocabulary size of over 5,000 words, which is not really consistent with the findings of the study conducted by Gui (1983). Yan and Yang concluded that the ability to recognise words in the College English word list is influenced and controlled by the total vocabulary size of the learners. The small total vocabulary size of the students restricts the increase of their College English vocabulary. They suggest that if students are to recognise 3,800 words in the CET list, their total vocabulary size has to be over 8,000 words. If students are to recognise 95% of the CET words, their total vocabulary size is expected to be around 8,000 words. In view of the lexical environment in the Chinese context, how and where are these students supposed to pick up more words to expand their total vocabulary size? The only source of vocabulary is the teacher and the textbooks. As yet, there has been no research into the role of teachers and textbooks regarding Chinese learners' vocabulary acquisition.

Zhao (1992) found that it is not uncommon for a learner to recognize the pronunciation of a word but not know its written form, or vice versa. This suggests that Chinese students actually have two sets of vocabulary: written and spoken, although this difference has not been addressed in teaching and syllabus design. Followed Gui's (1983) experimental design and word selection method, Zhao prepared two vocabulary lists. List A: 80 words representing the first 4,000 most commonly used words, and List B: 80 words that were recorded and presented orally rather than visually. Two groups of 1st and 2nd year non-English major students who had learned English for about 1,200 to 2,000 class hours took part. Results showed that there was a significant difference between learners' written and spoken

vocabulary. Subjects in both groups recognised more words from reading than from listening. Zhao concluded that too much attention was given to the written form of a word in the College English education and often reading and translation were heavily emphasised. He noted that students had worked out their own pronunciation of the words as pronunciation was always neglected in the teaching of vocabulary. He suggested that when students associated the meaning of words with universally accepted visual forms (letters) and imposed their own sounds (pronunciation), this would result in two very different vocabulary sizes for written and spoken forms.

Similar to Zhao's study, Lau (1995) conducted experimental research with 168 non-English major students at Hainan University to compare vocabulary sizes for reading and listening. He conducted a reading test and a listening test with the students to measure their knowledge of vocabulary used for the College English test. Results showed that students had only half the vocabulary size for listening that they had for reading. It was estimated that they could recognize 1,288 spoken words and 2,178 written words. Lau noted a positive correlation between vocabulary knowledge for reading and listening, and found that the students tended to know more "easy" words than "difficult" words. The findings reflect the foreign language learning conditions in China, where students listen less and read more. Lau suggested that there should be separate word lists for reading and listening. At present, College English teaching focuses on reading, explaining, writing and memorising words because the words in the syllabus are getting more difficult and larger in quantity. Lau wanted to integrate reading and listening, teaching both sound and spelling and providing more listening

practice, more exposure to spoken words for slow classes, and more vocabulary teaching in order to strengthen the phonological aspect of knowing a word.

The difference in the amount of spoken and written vocabulary or listening and reading vocabulary that learners know might suggest that students in China are developing the language abilities of a foreign language in an unbalanced way. In a study with L1 adults, McWilliam (1998) observed different sizes of speaking and reading vocabulary: 20,000 to 50,000 spoken words and 150,000 to 250,000 words for reading comprehension. In other words, the subjects' receptive vocabulary was almost 5 to 7.5 times bigger than their productive vocabulary. Yoshida (1978, quoted in Nation 1990) found that young SL learners have receptive vocabularies 2.2 times larger than their productive vocabularies. Other studies also find that not only is the quantity of words different in productive and receptive vocabulary, but the quality differs too. The written lexicon of native speakers exhibits a greater variety in words used (a greater number of types) than the oral lexicon. The written texts of native speakers contain a greater number of less common / low frequency words while their oral discourse also contains more newly coined words and words used with new meanings (Biber 1988; Chafe & Danielwicz 1987, quoted in Brown et al. 1999: 261).

An ability to recognise the written form of a word does not necessarily lead to recognition of the pronunciation as well. Koda (1997) suggests that there is a strong connection between the L1 orthographical system and L2 processing procedures. If learners know how to write a word, this does not mean that they will be able to

produce the same word while speaking. The implication of such differences on the teaching and learning of a word is worth taking note of. When teachers spend time helping learners remember the orthographical features of a word, they also have to spend time dealing with the phonological aspects of the word.

It was noted that the vocabulary size of Chinese students tends to be lower than that required by the national syllabus. In a syllabus-led education system, to what extent does the vocabulary requirement deal with discrepancies and inadequacy? How do teachers teach vocabulary in class? Do the teachers really neglect the development of listening and pronunciation? These questions can only be answered with the substantiation of real classroom data.

3.9 Studies of the mental lexicon

In a study of the way words are processed in the mental lexicon, Meara (1984) pointed out that learners internalise the L2 lexicon just as they do the L1 lexicon, but there is a significant difference between the lexicon of the L2 learner and that of a native speaker. The simplest model is the phonological (or orthographical) code which identifies the basic form of a word, and a semantic entry which specifies the meaning of the word in so far as it is known. But we do not really know what these phonological and semantic representations look like, how they are related and how they are accessed. Meara's Birkbeck project studied the production of word associations between native and non-native speakers and found that natives tended to produce responses with close semantic links, while non-natives tended to produce

words which were phonologically related. If the L1 and the L2 were ill-matched, this would lead to completely inappropriate entries. For example, Chinese learners who were unfamiliar with the roman alphabet would have difficulty with long words and would therefore pay more attention to the ends of the words. They would be unable to guess the pronunciation of words they were familiar with in written form.

Corson (1997) cited evidence from languages other than English to extend the discussion of language specificity. He concluded that "linguistic differences between languages would produce broadly different processing patterns" (693). So far, studies of the mental lexicons of Chinese learners have been limited.

Hsia, Chung and Wong (1995) studied the problems of Cantonese L1 speakers in recalling and using words with special academic meanings. According to the researchers, the reason why these advanced students had great difficulty in recognising words of Graeco-Latin origin is because of the rigid teaching approaches that isolated lexico-semantic categories within each learner's mental lexicon. Corson (1997) noted that most academic words come from abstract academic meaning systems, therefore, they should be treated at many levels in order to make the meaning transparent to the learners.

In his study of the mental lexicon of Chinese learners of English, Gui (1993) invited twenty-two Putonghua speakers at postgraduate level to take part in an experimental study. He tested to see if: i) bilinguals share a mental lexicon in common for the two

languages they know; second, ii) the mental lexicon can be accessed via sound patterns; iii) Chinese learners of English can acquire the intuition of recognizing the phonological forms of English, and iv) there are interferences in code-switching between Chinese and English. In the experiment, learners were presented with a series of words (e.g. 父親 – 兒子, translating "father – son") or strings of letters or characters (e.g. yshuse – quemou). These series of strings in Chinese and English were categorised as semantically or phonologically related (e.g. strong – weak, still – steal), words without semantic or phonological relation (e.g. moon – why), non-words (e.g. treisp – bseer), non-words that are pseudo-homophones of real words (e.g. nekst – leiber), and pairs of real words and pseudo-homophones (e.g. punish – eech). Subjects had to decide if the strings appearing on the computer screen were words or non-words by pressing one of the two keys on the keyboard. The hypotheses were validated by checking learners' reaction time and their ability to recognise words.

Gui found that learners used the least time to recognise the string of words which were semantically related. They responded quickest to the mother tongue, slightly slower in the mixed mode and slowest in English. He suggested that bilinguals share a mental lexicon which is organised in an associative semantic network, however, with distinctive access files for the mother tongue and the target language. So, there should be ways of helping learners to achieve language transfer. Also, the entries of words in the access files are arranged in order of frequency. Thus, Gui believes that it is important to teach high frequency words as early as possible.

Gui noted that the activation of English can occur through meaning as well as sound. Learners took longer time to reject non-words that are pseudo-homophones of real words. His study suggested that Chinese learners were able to apply well the English phonological rules for recognising English words. In other words, the phonological representation would promote the access of English words and assist memory (Bu 1992).

Gui concluded that the shared mental lexicon helps bilinguals to relate a new word in a foreign language to the meaning in the mental lexicon which is based on the system of the mother tongue. He also found indication of a spread of activation across two languages. However, the shared mental lexicon poses problems in understanding the exact meaning of culturally biased lexical items in the target language and causes trouble in code-switching if the two languages have two different graphic systems. But Gui added that if words in two languages belong to the same semantic network, code-switching will facilitate lexical access rather than create interference (135).

3.10 Concluding remarks

There is an old Chinese saying from *The Three Characters* that "[i]f students do not learn, it's the teacher's fault". The answer to "Vocabulary Acquisition: whose job is it?" is perhaps provided in this saying. Most Chinese teachers believe that if they teach more, their students will learn more. However, theories of language learning have told us that it is the quality of input and the teaching conditions that matter in facilitating acquisition and attaining pedagogical goals.

In May 1999, I conducted a workshop on vocabulary teaching strategies with a group of Master students and College English teachers at a prestigious university in Beijing. I prepared an exhaustive list of vocabulary teaching methods and introduced them one by one with examples and demonstrations. The session ran smoothly and they found some of the methods, like semantic mapping, concordancing, and the use of realia, interesting. But the excitement centred on the novelty of the ideas and not on practicality. At the end of the session, a teacher could not help raising her serious concern about the amount time these methods needed for preparation and delivery. With limited class time and a large number of vocabulary items to deal with, she said that the vocabulary teaching methods that I presented were too much a luxury for her and her students.

In an examination-driven curriculum, teachers are conscious about their role and duty. They are eager to cover all the vocabulary requirements. They are also eager to help learners to remember as many vocabulary items as possible. However, they are not aware of the potentials of a variety of vocabulary teaching methods which might be particularly effective for Chinese learners, according to research findings. They are not aware of the potential of incidental vocabulary acquisition, "picking up" words from extensive reading and exposure to teacher talk in the classroom. Students do not just simply learn vocabulary through explicit vocabulary teaching. They learn from what is available in the environment. In an input-poor environment where exposure to the target language is mainly confined to the classroom, the study of the lexical input

from the teacher talk is as important as the study of what and how vocabulary items are explicitly treated.

My study of vocabulary input will therefore be divided into two parts: intensive vocabulary treatments that involve explicit vocabulary teaching, and extensive exposure through attending to teacher talk in the classroom.

The work of Ellis and his co-researchers on the types of oral input for vocabulary acquisition have shaped the analytical framework of studying the treatment of explicitly taught words. Their studies took place in the laboratory settings but I have analysed input and output treatments in real classroom data. I first tried this method with another piece of research concerning vocabulary teaching at secondary schools in Hong Kong and Guangzhou (Tang and Nesi forthcoming). Then modifications were made to the present analytical framework based on the previous findings.

The traditional teaching and learning culture and the demand from the centralised curricula have made direct teaching of vocabulary items inevitable. Gui's research into the mental lexicons of Chinese learners have led to some useful pedagogical implications. His work can inform the development of more appropriate and effective vocabulary teaching methods for promoting acquisition and memory among Chinese learners.

Another important piece of research is Meara, Lightbown and Hatler's study of the foreign language classroom as a lexical environment. The tools they adopted to measure lexical richness in teacher talk provided the methodological framework for my study of vocabulary input from the teacher talk.

A number of studies of lexical difficulties have suggested that words with high imageability are easier to learn and better remembered. Concrete nouns, most adjectives and high frequency words belong to this category. In teaching these highly imageable words, it is not advisable to spend too much precious class time on teaching literal meaning as the visual representation provides a considerable amount of information about the meaning. Teachers can deal with other aspects of the word knowledge, such as collocation, appropriacy, grammatical structure, etc.

Words with low imageability, such as most verbs, abstract nouns and Graeco-Latin academic vocabulary, are considered the most difficult to teach and to recall. Thus, in order to build up associative links in the network of memory, teachers have to "teach" more about these words. Instead of using a single input or output type, a multiple treatment approach with in-built redundancy will reinforce the exact meanings of the words and develop new concepts from known ones. At university level, one can expect more of these words to be taught. It is assumed that teachers will use a variety of input/output types or multiple treatments to make the meaning clear to the learners.

As important as multiple treatment is, the number of occurrences of new words will also affect vocabulary acquisition. The more frequently they are encountered, the higher the chance of acquisition and the possibility of encoding them in production. If new words are treated with multiple turns, this results in more recurrences and increases familiarity and memorization. Thus, in the study of explicit vocabulary teaching, I will examine input and output types on the one hand, and explore multiple treatments and multiple turns on the other hand.

The collection and transcription of the classroom data was a laborious process. I visited universities to observe lessons, interviewed students, had informal chat with teachers and took photographs of the language environment in the classroom and the campus. In this study, I will concentrate on vocabulary teaching and lexical input from teacher talk. However, the classroom data I used in this study was part of a bigger corpus that I collected which will also provide data for further research of different kinds.

The teacher's concern about the limited class time available for a variety of vocabulary teaching methods raises the question of vocabulary teaching load. When direct teaching is expected, the number of words to be taught has become critical. It is generally agreed that a "threshold vocabulary" for academic success and language proficiency is needed. However, there is no consensus on the exact number of words to be acquired at different levels of study. What is enough for the foreign language learners depends on the role and needs of the target language at different academic

levels. In China, the number and the type of words to be acquired by the learners at different levels of schooling is prescribed in national English syllabuses and those selected words are supposed to be embedded in the passages of the Intensive Reading textbooks for explicit treatment. Syllabus-referenced words or relevant words will be glossed in the textbooks and highlighted in the teacher's books for explicit treatment. The relationship between the vocabulary requirement laid down in the syllabus and the glossaries in the IR textbooks has prescribed, to a great extent, the English vocabulary input for tertiary students in the Chinese classroom. A complete understanding of the vocabulary treatment and the lexical input from teachers requires a prior knowledge of the vocabulary requirements prescribed in the syllabus and teaching materials. Yet, the importance of studying the teaching materials in China's universities and colleges has been underestimated (Yuen, Qi and Lau 1996). For this reason, Chapter Four is concerned with the syllabus word lists and the textbook word lists.

The study of the teaching materials begins with an in-depth examination of the word lists in China and a comparison with other frequency lists to define the nature of vocabulary input in the printed sources for acquisition. The comparison of word lists is just a matter of pressing a few keys on the computer keyboard but the preparation of the lists was a long and painful process. All the hard copy version of the word lists had to be transformed into computer-usable format. This involved the typing of about 30,000 words and weeks of word-processing.

Chapter Four

Word lists for teaching and learning

Word lists in China are part of the national English Syllabus, and are intended for pedagogical purposes. The vocabulary items and number of words are listed in order that textbook writers can develop the teaching materials and teachers can know the kinds of words that they need to teach their learners. Word lists also serve as a reference list for test constructors to select words for assessment (Huang and Yang, 1990; Yu 1992). Since word lists in China are just collections of words with their L1 meanings and word classes, it is not easy for teachers to know how to use them. For this reason, vocabulary reference books containing forms and examples have been developed and are extremely popular among the learners (Yu 1992). Even though word lists have an important function in English education in China, there has never been any systematic study to investigate the nature of the words in the lists, the relationship between the word lists and the textbooks, or how these words are exploited in teaching.

4.1 Criteria for a pedagogical word list

Unlike phonology and grammar, which are generally believed to follow certain patterns and sequences of acquisition, vocabulary has no clear sequence of acquisition (Richards 1976, Meara 1980, Maiguashca 1993, Schmitt 1995, Carter 1996) and the rate of learning varies (Dodd 1933, Richards 1976). Because of this, a pedagogical word list with a clear purpose and well-designed teaching sequence e.g. from short to

long words, from high frequency to low frequency words, should provide conditions for systematic vocabulary development. A pedagogical word list is defined as a selection of words used by textbook writers in preparing materials and by teachers in selecting stories, design exercises and definitions (Nation 1996; Coxhead and Nation 2001). It also serves as a reference list for learners to manage their learning (Nation 1990).

The purpose of a list is always the main factor affecting its compilations. Word selection criteria then determine the inclusion of words in the word list. Deviation among word lists is due to the different definitions of a "word", whether the "word" is a word family, a derived form or an inflected form. It could also be due to the source texts used by the compiler(s). Corpora can vary in range, age and size. For this reason, the words in two different word lists will never be the same.

4.1.1 Frequency

A frequency list is generated by counting the frequency of occurrence of words in the texts in the corpus. Ghadessy (1979) remarked that "the assumption that the more frequent words should be taught before the less frequent ones has resulted in the preparation of word lists based on frequency counts of lexical items found in actual samples of the language" (24).

The classic list of high-frequency words is the 2,000 words *General Service List* (*GSL*) (West 1953). Enormous quantities of graded readers were based on his list and

it is still an important list for learners of English. The frequency of occurrence of various meanings and uses of words is not provided in this list, however. The most obvious limitation of most frequency lists remains the fact that word forms with more than one meaning are counted as single words.

Although, the *GSL* has been criticized for being out of date (Richards 1974), there is a large overlap between West's list and the high-frequency words in recent frequency counts (Nation and Hwang 1995). According to Nation (2001), the *GSL* covers 80% of the running words in spoken and written texts in all kinds of uses of the language.

It is generally agreed that frequency is not the best or only criterion for the selection of words to teach (Wallace 1982; Nation 1990). Richards (1974:79) argued that the principles of constructing a word list should include objective measures, such as, frequency, range, language needs, availability and familiarity, coverage, and regularity, and subjective decisions from the teachers and specialists. Nation (1990) noted that frequency counts provide useful information about the frequency and range of words but certain useful and important words which are useful words in daily communication, do not occur in the 1st or 2nd 1,000 words. This is again not surprising as frequency lists are normally based on written corpora, and some words are of higher frequency in speech than in print. Learners need to know the words in speech as well as in print.

It has only been in the last two decades or so that spoken discourse has been included in corpora for dictionary writing. So far, however, word lists for teaching that draw on spoken discourse do not exist. There are two corpora of spoken academic genres, the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus, led by Hilary Nesi, and the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), directed by Sarah Briggs and John Swales. We are still waiting, however, for the development of a spoken wordlist.

Nation (1996) divided the most frequent words in English into the first, second and third 1,000 word lists. The three lists of words can be found in the computer programme *VocabProfile.* The first list (VP1) includes the most frequent 1,000 words of English; the second (VP2) includes the second 1,000 most frequent words, and the third (VP3) includes words not in the first 2,000 words of English, but frequent in upper secondary school and university texts from a wide range of subjects. However, none of these lists were derived directly from corpora.

Although it is convenient to divide the most frequent words into different levels, I am not sure why the cut-off point of the words is so arbitrary. Nation pointed out that only the first 1,000 most frequent words are stable across different frequency lists. Starting from the 2nd 1,000 words, there are lots of variations among different frequency lists. The variations are due to differences in the source texts which form the corpus and the size of the corpus.

According to Carter (1986:33), the coreness in vocabulary is referenced to practical contexts of vocabulary use. They are extremely basic and simple words for ordinary everyday communication. These words require individual attention not only because they are the most useful for survival, but also are most polysemous and collocationally complex (Nagy 1998). However, this 'core vocabulary' is incapable of facilitating great communicative power – to persuade, amuse or create narrative atmosphere. It is not enough to learn these 'core' words only. There is a value in exposing children to infrequent words, less common and less all-purpose vocabulary if they want to "do things with words".

Low frequency words have a narrow range. They appear in a limited number of texts. These words make up over 5% of the words in an academic text but are the biggest group of words (Nation 2001). However, a small number of these words may be quite frequent within a text on a particular topic or in a particular genre type.

There are words which are relatively rare in "General English", e.g. *dictation, chalk.* These words do not have the power to persuade, amuse, or create narrative atmosphere. But they are "core". They can be common in a specific context, such as, the classroom. Richards (1974) warned that frequency lists do not necessarily produce words which are pedagogically relevant and their content often deviates from teachers' intuitions. He argued that infrequent words have a crucial role to play in communication. SL learners need to know the most frequent and widest range words, and also other words depending on the contexts of particular topics of discourse.

4.1.2 Discourse-specificity

The nature of the words for ESL/EFL learners can be looked at from a different perspective. Nation (1990) categorized words into high frequency words, academic words, technical words and low frequency words. The purpose was to help teachers decide what words should be taught first before the others and approximately how many are needed for different purposes.

Academic words are common in academic discourse and account for a large coverage in academic texts (Nation 1990; Nation 2001). These are the words which learners find most difficult (Cohen et al. 1988, Nation 1990) but are essential for academic success (Corson 1997). Most very common words are of Anglo-Saxon origin, while less common or more formal words are often of French or Latin or Greek origin. English academic discourse contains a lot of Graeco-Latin words. Most of which will have cognates in French. It is precisely this kind of vocabulary that teachers may be aiming to introduce in the classroom, as these words are important for expressing scientific and academic concepts.

Technical words refer to words which are commonly found in text of a particular subject area or topic and are not typical elsewhere. Nation (1990) claimed that these words cover about 5% of the running words in a text. Flowerdew (1993) found that many of these technical words are not new to learners. Many of them are actually high frequency nouns which bear technical meanings, e.g. *cell*.

Word lists can be generated from corpora of academic discourse. Xue and Nation (1984) combined the lists from Campion and Elley (1971) and Praninskas (1972) and checked with lists from Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy (1979) to form the *University Word List (UWL)*. As the four lists that *UWL* was based on were limited in size and were developed to cater for the academic needs of local learners, the *UWL* is not convincing as an academic word list for ESL learners around the world. Coxhead (1998) replaced *UWL* with an *Academic Word List (AWL)* containing 570 word families. The *AWL* drew on a new academic corpus of 3.5 million running words of written academic texts from twenty-eight subject areas. Coxhead and Nation (2001) claim that the *AWL* allows 8.5% to 10% coverage of academic texts. Knowing the 2,000 high frequency words and the *AWL* will provide about 90% coverage of academic text (Nation 2001). If this is supplemented by knowledge of proper nouns and technical vocabulary, learners will approach the threshold coverage of 95% for successful reading. The percentage seems to be a straightforward calculation. Every text is different, and obviously some texts contain different proportions of frequent, academic and technical lexis. Moreover, the suggested 95% coverage is a bit arbitrary. It depends very much on the genre. The coverage could be more but it could be less.

The significance of a discourse-specific word list is the identification of the most frequent words for academic study. However, the reliability of the word selection process and the percentage of coverage claimed are always questionable. According to Coxhead (2000), only words which appear over fifteen subject areas, over one

hundred occurrences, and with a frequency of at least ten in each one of the four sub-corpora were selected. However, the problem of cut-off point as in the levels of the frequency lists still remains. Moreover, knowing the meaning of the words in *AWL* does not necessary lead to an understanding of academic texts. It depends on whether the learners know enough of the semantic and syntactic structures of the word to decode the real meaning in the text.

Moreover, both these academic word lists are based entirely on written corpora of academic textbooks. They do not reflect the academic needs of listening to lectures and seminars, reading journals or writing assignment. Nesi (2001) suggested that some frequent academic spoken words are not accounted for in the *AWL*.

4.1.3 Subjective versus objective principles

The compilation of a word list usually follows some subjective or objective principles of selection (Wallace 1982). The subjective approach involves personal impressions of usefulness while the most widely-used objective selection principle is the frequency count. Teachers usually teach the vocabulary items recommended by the teacher's books or select words which they believe are new or difficult for their learners (see Tang and Nesi, forthcoming). This is a form of subjective selection. Sinclair and Renouf's (1988) list of the two hundred most frequent words from the COBUILD corpus is an example of an objective selection, on the basis of frequency.

Subjective principles based on intuition can vary greatly according to the knowledge, exposure and judgement of the compilers. This approach is always criticized as unreliable. Some have argued that words selected on the basis of intuition can be more learnable, memorable and salient to learners as teachers know well the topics, interests and needs of their learners (Rixon 1999). Some have suggested that the reliability of the word lists is greater if experienced teachers are involved in the selection process. But how experienced is experienced? How much do these experienced teachers know about learners, especially if their experience is limited to a particular group of learners only?

Nation (1996) saw the frequency count as an inadequate principle for word selection. He proposed other selection criteria, such as inclusion of basic scientific concepts, contextual requirements, phrases, needs (personal, social, thinking, labelling, classroom and teaching), regularity, defining power, economy, and loan words (words that require less effort to learn) as important criteria. These suggestions have embedded the idea of subjectivity in an objective principle.

On one hand, subjective selection criteria have been criticized as biased and unreliable. On the other hand, objective selection criteria are considered unstable and inadequate. The frequency count based on authentic communication contexts allows teachers and textbook writers to be aware of the kinds of words that learners need to know. But the teacher's intuition provides more updated information or first-hand knowledge about learner's needs and problems. An objective list with subjective

selection seems to be the best option. *GSL* is an example of the adoption objective and subjective criteria. However, the optimal balance between subjectivity and objectivity is not easy to be attained.

4.1.4 Need-specificity

Cowan (1974) compiled a master list of medical vocabulary to meet the immediate needs of the medical learners. Campion and Elley (1971) and Praninskas (1972) drew up lists of words which were not found in the *GSL* and occur frequently across a range of academic disciplines in New Zealand and America respectively. Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy (1979) came up with lists of academic words for Singaporean and Iranian university learners respectively based on the words annotated or glossed in the learners' academic textbooks. The lists from Campion and Elley, Praninskas, Lynn and Ghadessy echoed the call from Richards (1974) for a recognised word list for learners with particular cultures, educational backgrounds and language needs to replace word lists that had been designed for general language learning situations.

These word lists drew on the vocabulary of mainly undergraduate textbooks. Perhaps it would also be more useful to include learners' assignments for the words that they need to use. Such need-specific word lists also neglect the fact that learners also need other vocabulary items for different communication purposes.

4.1.5 Productive and receptive vocabulary

Richards (1976:83) laid down eight assumptions about word knowledge:

1. A native speaker of a language continues to expand his vocabulary in adulthood, whereas there is comparatively little development of syntax in adult life.
2. Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print, and, in many cases, the sort of words most likely to be found associated with it.
3. Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.
4. Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word.
5. Knowing a word entails knowledge of its underlying forms and derivations.
6. Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of association between that word and other words in the language.
7. Knowing a word means knowing its semantic value.
8. Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word.

Nation (1990) interpreted word knowledge from the perspective of 'breadth' and 'depth'. The 'breadth' of vocabulary knowledge enables learners to recognise or recall words. This applies to receptive vocabulary which can be recognized but which may or may not be available for the learner to use. The 'depth' of vocabulary knowledge allows learners to use the words accurately in production. This applies to productive vocabulary which can actually be used in speech or writing. Similarly, Palmberg (1987) writes of 'potential' vocabulary, consisting of those L2 words

which are not yet part of the learner's lexicon but can nevertheless be recognized when they are encountered and 'real' vocabulary consisting of those L2 words which are actually 'learnt' to some extent.

Although breath and depth of vocabulary knowledge are different, Coady (1993) sees them as part of a process of learning rather than as distinct vocabulary types. He points out that word knowledge which is initially receptive can become productive over time and through frequent encounters and practice. It can also be the case that a learner acquires productive knowledge of a word and is able to write but fails to listen and develop the receptive knowledge because the phonological representation has not been formed. However, the transition and process by which word knowledge as a whole is constructed in our mental lexicon is unclear.

The problem of teaching productive and receptive vocabulary lies in the amount of information included in teaching. The differentiation between these two groups of words is not easily made by the teachers in terms of the teaching methods and time spent on teaching.

4.1.6 Learnability and teachability

Carter (1996) pointed out that there are a number of specific linguistic tests to identify core vocabulary which have considerable potential for teaching and learning. The most frequent and simplest words could be the most problematic ones because of

their polysemous nature. Teachers must decide which meanings to teach first and which words, polysemous or monosemous, present the least learning burden.

Kellerman (1977, 1983) used frequency as an indicator of learnability, but was challenged. Griffin (1992) argued that imageability and the existence of cognates in the L1 serve as better indicators of learnability.

The concept of learnability and teachability is not detailed, systematic and precise. They are not very effective criteria for devising a reliable pedagogical word list. The ability to learn and to teach vocabulary items depends very much on the learners and teachers themselves – their learning strategies and teaching skills.

4.2 The presentation of a word list

Most teaching word lists are based on frequency and on the compiler's initiative. They vary in length, presentation and type of words included. For example, the *General Service List* (West 1953) listed the meanings of 2,000 high frequency words, aiming to identify the basic vocabulary with its different meanings for teachers and textbook writers to use. The *Academic Word List* (Coxhead 1998) has only 570 word families, targeting ESL university learners. (The *GSL* and *AWL* can be found in the CD ROM). In China, the word list in the national College English Syllabus (for students of Arts and Sciences) includes 5,784 headwords with selected derived forms as separate headwords and the list serves as the vocabulary requirement for over four million non-English major university learners.

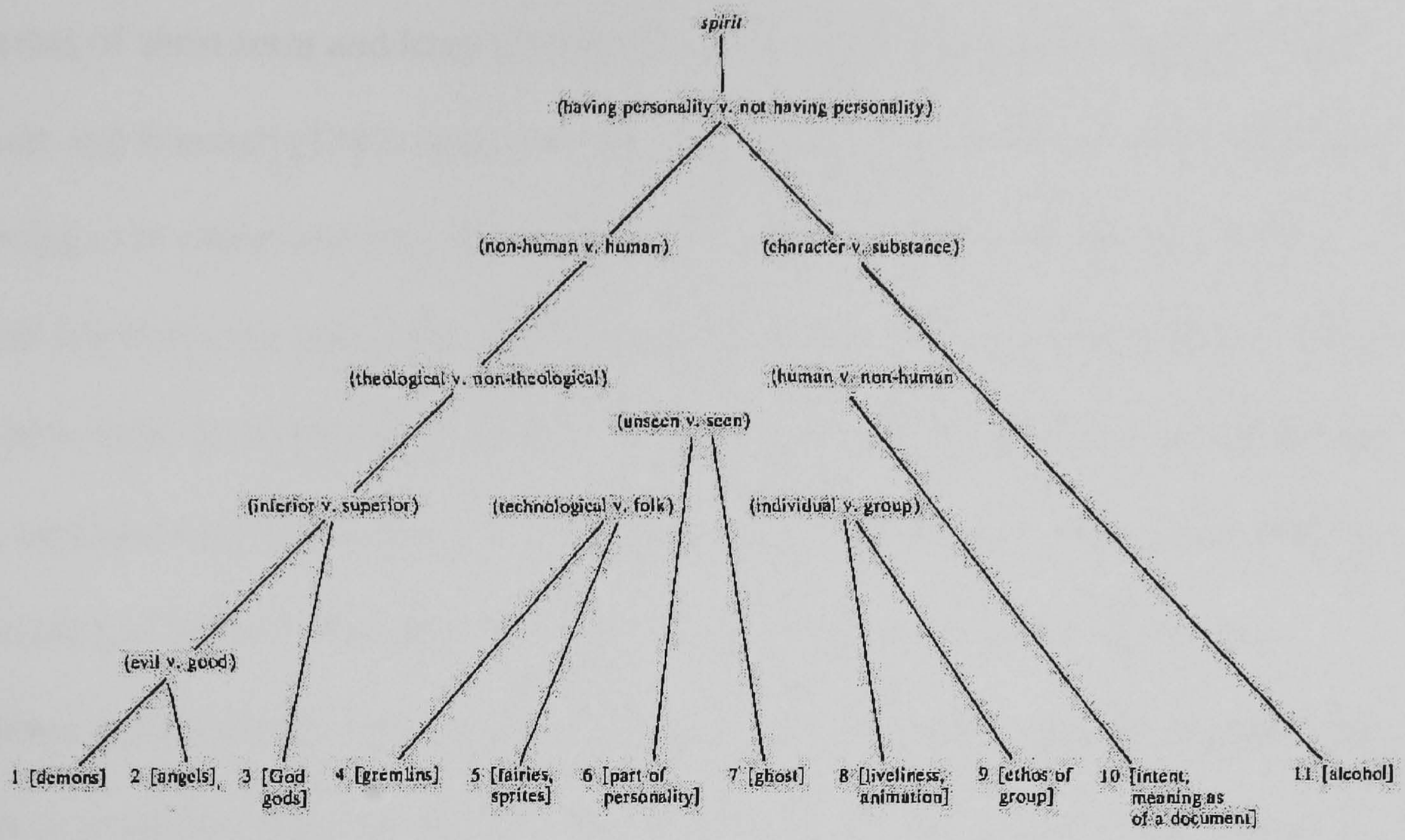
The definition of what a "word" means is controversial in word list compilation. Some lists count derived forms as individual word and some consider a word family as a word. Bauer and Nation (1993) suggested that word lists should contain word families. A 'word family' is taken to include a base word, its inflected forms and its regular derived forms. Bauer and Nation claimed that the comprehension of regularly inflected or derived members of a family does not require much more significant effort by learners if the base word is known and if they have control of basic word-building processes. They argue that a word list consisting of word families encourages a systematic approach to vocabulary teaching and a better management of vocabulary load. However, the underlying assumption that knowing a base form implies knowledge of the inflected and regular derived forms is not fair to foreign language learners whose mother tongue does not share a similar morphology. Foreign language learners have to work hard to understand and acquire the different forms in a word family. The inclusion of all forms, however, such as different spellings (e.g. *favour* and *favor*), and inflections (e.g. *natural* and *naturally*), might be redundant. So, what to include and exclude is still questionable in presenting a word list.

Some word lists are just lists of words arranged in alphabetical order. The alphabetical arrangement of words has the advantage of easy reference to individual word forms, but does not provide any pedagogical information about the relevance, linguistic features of the words, and its sequence of teaching and learning. Foulds (1993) argued that the some teaching word lists do not state the particular meaning

intended for each item on the list clearly and simply assume that writers and editors know automatically the meaning to be included in the textbooks. Although *GSL* also presents the word list in alphabetical order, it does give information about the frequency, range, word classes and their meanings, next to each word as reference.

Not all word lists include word class information. For example, the *UWL* and *AWL* do not. Word class information is useful as it helps disambiguate meaning. However, it is not sufficient to distinguish the meaning of polysemous words. For example, according to Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary, *soak* as a verb has four different meanings (as steep, saturate, seep, bathe). Word class information alone cannot help teachers and writers decide how and what to teach or include in the books.

Some word lists provide the L1 translation next to the words. The word lists in China are examples of bilingual lists. The provision of the L1 translation defines clearly the exact meanings that the word list compilers have in mind. However, the simple provision of L1 glosses has ignored the other aspects of knowing a word. Also, getting the direct L1 translation for L2 words is always problematic, especially if words are cultural-specific (e.g. *dumplings*), gender-specific (e.g. *beautiful* and *handsome*), with positive or negative connotation (e.g. *skinny* and *slim*), or multi-layered (see example of *spirit* below).



[Source: Bassnett-McGuire, S. 1980. *Translation Studies (revised edition)*. London: Routledge, p. 20.]

4.3 Word list learning: a means to the goal?

The syllabus word lists are bilingual lists of words arranged in alphabetical order. It is the design initiative to have these words embedded in the texts and treated by the teacher in class. However, it is not surprising to find that learners study and recite the bilingual lists. Nation (1987) and Schmitt (1995) suggest that word list learning is a quick and easy way for ESL learners to acquire vocabulary in a very short period of time. However, Griffins (1992) argued that list learning is ineffective, difficult and easy to forget because learners learn the L1 glosses or translation but fail to understand the denotation and their different contextual meanings. Most importantly, not all English words have a direct translation or exact equivalent in other languages.

In terms of short-term and long-term retention of word meaning, Zhang (1997) and Laufer and Shmueli (1997) have shown positive results in their study of bilingual list learning over other learning conditions. In an experimental study, Zhang (1997) tested 104 first-year non-English majors at Peking University preparing for CET4 to see how well they retained vocabulary under three learning conditions, using a word list, sentence contexts or whole text contexts. None of the target words were listed in the College English syllabuses (1993, 1996). The "list group" had words with Chinese equivalents and an English explanation. The "sentence group" was provided with an example. The "text group" had a slightly modified version of the reading passage from the GRE (Graduate Record Examinations for students applying for graduate school in America). A vocabulary retention test of ten minutes was given twice to each group. In the test, learners were given the choice to write down the Chinese equivalent or English explanation for the ten target words. The first test was a short-term memory test conducted immediately after the study period. A long-term memory test was run two weeks later without informing the learners. Results showed that the List group outperformed the other three groups both in short-term and long-term retention of the ten target words. The Text group was the poorest for both short-term and long-term retention. Zhang concluded that new words learnt in isolation were retained better than those learnt by the three other learning methods both in short-term and long-term memory. She suggested list learning should not be neglected in the Chinese classroom.

Laufer and Shmueli (1997) also did a similar study with native Hebrew learners. They selected "low frequency" words and presented them in a list, sentences, text (a passage from a British course book) and elaborated text (a text containing lexical elaboration). In each mode of presentation, half of the target words were translated into the learners' L1 and half were explained in English. The results are consistent with Zhang (1997) that words presented in a list were better remembered. Laufer and Shumeli (1997) further suggested that bilingual lists may be conducive to vocabulary learning as they found that words glossed in L1 were always better retained than those glossed in L2.

There are always arguments about learning the target word with its L1 equivalent. Elliott and Tao (1998) investigated the effect of four learning conditions on short-term recall of lexical meaning. The conditions were simultaneous word-translation, i.e. the L1 equivalent; simultaneous word-dictionary definition, i.e. the dictionary meaning in English; the word with translation as feedback after a 5 seconds interval; and the word with dictionary definition as feedback after a 5 seconds interval. They found that conditions with feedback were superior to simultaneous conditions and the translation conditions were more favourable in recalling lexical meaning than definition ones. The results support the use of L1 to L2 word meaning acquisition. Elliott and Tao also claimed that "translations in mother tongue played an important mediating role in the cross-linguistic meaning-mapping process". (p.79).

The experiments and research on bilingual list learning above have all shown positive results on short-term and long-term retention. Unfortunately, these studies do not address the original criticism that word lists did not teach connotation, collocation, contextual appropriacy, etc. Reliance on Chinese equivalents or translation in obtaining lexical meaning is of pedagogical concern. There is no denial of the role the L1 plays in understanding the meaning of words, but the over-use of L1 translation deprives learners of exploring and developing other potentially effective learning strategies, such as dictionaries and negotiation, and other lexical aspects such as collocations. The over-reliance on the L1 also provides an impoverished lexical environment for incidental vocabulary acquisition. It limits exposure to the target language in contexts where most of the L2 is acquired in the classroom.

Memorization of word lists is sometimes regarded as an ineffective way of word learning because it fails to address assumptions about word knowledge (Richards 1976). For most Chinese educators and learners, however, list learning is positive and constructive. Zhang (1997), in a questionnaire study, found that Chinese learners who were not yet prepared for the CET4 preferred learning new words through reading rather than by studying directly from a list. However, those who were preparing for the national examination, ranked list learning as their most preferred vocabulary learning strategy. They claimed that list learning helps reduce anxiety and they regarded memorising new words from a word list as an important part in the preparation for the examination.

Yue (1991:60) warned that many learners give up learning English 'because they are bored by vocabulary lists and are tired of memorizing words every morning'. Although many English teachers in China are interested in exploring teaching innovations, somehow the most popular innovations are related to memorisation.

One of the most controversial vocabulary teaching methods in China is the "Zhang Sizhong Teaching Method". Zhang was a secondary school teacher who changed from teaching Russian to teaching English in the late 1950s. Zhang claimed that his method was devised particularly for Chinese learners. It is also called "a native method" (Hu 1993: 3) or "a foreign language teaching method in Chinese contexts" (Huang 1993:10). Since the 1980s, there have been a lot of conferences and demonstration lessons organized focusing on his teaching method. The method has been trialled in different parts of China, especially in areas where there are not enough qualified teachers and relatively slow economic development (Wang, under review).

Zhang Sizhong's method concentrates on expanding vocabulary (Zhang 1996). The principle is derived from Krashen's Input Hypothesis. The teacher first divides learners into groups according to their aptitude. They are then provided with different levels of comprehensible input. After class, learners need to review the vocabulary frequently and systematically, while at the same time more extensive reading is assigned. The whole vocabulary expansion process requires learners to memorise a lot of words mechanically with concentrated effort. According to Zhang, this method

will not increase the 'affective filter' as middle school learners are more likely to follow their teachers' instruction.

This method is found popular in middle schools and at universities (Jiang 1993), but despite the positive feedback, it has been criticised for over-relying on rote learning of words and memorization of dialogues, which contradicts the current communicative approach to teaching introduced in the 90's (Wang under review).

Another vocabulary learning method that requires memorisation is proposed by Wang (1997). Again referring to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, he classified input into 'natural' and 'non-natural'. Natural input is from reading and listening. Non-natural input is from memorising words, phrases, sentence patterns, etc. Learners receive comprehensible input from reading and listening to teachers, and after making of consicous effort to understand and memorise the words, they will be able to produce comprehenisble output.

He (1999), in her PhD thesis, tried another new method to expand vocabulary so as to improve reading ability. She trained her learners by making them aware of the importance of vocabulary in English learning. She tested her vocabulary teaching method by having a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group were first told how to memorize and review. She also taught the experimental group about dictionary skills and vocabulary learning strategies and urged them to memorize with concentrated effort after class and before bed. A vocabulary test was

conducted after the learners had tried out her suggested method for a period of time. Both groups made progress in translation, listening, writing and speaking as well as in vocabulary, but the experimental group did better in all the tests. In a follow-up questionnaire survey, learners in the control group requested methods to help them memorize words. She concluded from her experiment that learners need to be taught memory skills and her concentrated effort methods proved to be practical in expanding vocabulary. These result are not surprising as the students in the experimental group were doing more work out of class than the control group.

Vocabulary teaching does not rely solely on memorisation. The PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) model of teaching can be found in the teacher's book of *Junior English for China* and *Senior English for China*. The five steps in teaching vocabulary include Revision, Presentation, Drilling, Practice, and Consolidation. Of all the twenty lessons that I observed in 1997 and 1998, secondary school teachers from both key and ordinary schools teaching junior forms English in Guangzhou and Shanghai followed the five steps of teaching vocabulary closely.

4.4 Word lists in China

In China, word lists are included as an integral part of the national English syllabuses. The words selected and the number of words included are claimed to be needed by the Chinese learner for both written and spoken communication.

There are four national English syllabuses for different levels of schooling – primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and tertiary. The English syllabus for Primary Schools was piloted in some major cities in September 2001, and will be used by the entire country by 2005. The English syllabus for Primary Schools also includes a word list, but at the time of writing, I was still unable to get a copy of it. So in this study, I will only discuss the three other syllabus word lists in China, the Junior secondary schools (JSS) word list, Senior Secondary Schools (SSS) word list and College English (C) word list. (The full word lists are documented in the CD rom.)

The word list for JSS was revised in 2000. It contains 830 words. The word list for SSS revised in 2001 contains 3,300 words (see Table 2 below). Almost all the words in the list for JSS can be found in the list for SSS except one word, "interested". This suggests a recycling of words when learners proceed to higher forms. The presentation of the JSS and SSS word lists is similar. Derivations, plurals, male and female forms, proper nouns, names of places and different spellings of the same word are listed as separate vocabulary items. The irregular forms of certain verbs are also listed next to the headword. The word class and Chinese translation are given in each entry.

Table 2: Junior and Senior Secondary Schools word lists (2000 and 2001)

Word lists	**Number of words**	**Changes**
JSS	830	increased by 26%
SSS	3,300	increased by 41%
Total	4,130	/

The most recent word lists for secondary schools saw a great increase in the number of words included. The JSS word list increased by 26% and the SSS word list has 41% more words. The new words can be categorised into:

a) words related to Chinese culture, e.g. *beancurd, lantern, melon seed, panda, mooncake, mid-autumn, pingpong*;

b) words related to science and technology, e.g. *AIDS, email, clone, digital, drag, recycle, videophone;*

c) proper nouns, e.g. *Hong Kong, Christian, Buddhism, Antarctica* (however, *Marxism* was dropped);

d) living English, e.g. *downtown, chips, bathtub, hamburger*;

e) spoken expressions, e.g. *goodness, ha, hooray, ouch*;

f) mathematical terms, e.g. *multiply, semicircle, subtraction*; and

g) food, e.g. *squid, pizza, cookie*

The compilation process and selection criteria for JSS and SSS word lists are not known. There is no information in the syllabuses which describes the selection criteria, the procedure and the sources of the selected words.

Also, it is not known if there is any explicit co-ordination between the word list compilers for secondary and university levels, working for systematic vocabulary development during the course of English education. The new JSS and SSS word lists cover 76% of the whole College English word list. If these 76% of words are given repeated exposure in appropriate learning activities at university, they will become productive vocabulary. If there is a good co-ordination among syllabus designers at different levels of schooling, the vocabulary size of the Chinese learners will not only be expanded, but the number of productive words will also be increased considerably.

At university, there used to be separate word lists for the arts and the science students. However, after the Open Door Policy in 1977, there was great demand for more professionally oriented English-language users to replace interpreters (Xu 1985). According to Xu, Shanghai Jiaotong University surveyed thirty-six institutions in 1981, asking one hundred first-year students about their English learning preferences. Their request for general English, multi-skill training and common-core language (not only technical materials) eventually formed the basis of a new national syllabus and the new textbook series *College English*. The first common word list for all non-English major learners was introduced in 1985 and revised in 1993 and 1995, attending CEBs 1-4 and CEBs 5-6 respectively.

The two levels of word lists, CEBs1-4 and CEBs5-6, were printed together in the national syllabus (see Appendix 4 for the sample College English word list). The

words are grouped into three categories indicating the different stages of acquisition. The (E) words are supposed to be learned at secondary level, the (I) words are to be formally acquired in the College English education for the CET4 and (A) words are to be learned if learners attempt the CET6. For example, *frequently* (E) and *probably* (E) are supposed to be taught in secondary school, *frequent* (I) and *probable* (I) are learned at university for the CET4 and *frequency* (A) and *probability* (A) are to be learned for the higher level examination CET6.

A word which has more than one semantic value or grammatical function is graded separately as (E), (I) or (A). For example, *paper* as a noun, meaning 'newspaper' or 'a piece of paper', is graded (E) and is the headword. *Paper* as a noun, meaning 'document' or 'academic writing', is categorized as (I) and when it is used as a verb to mean 'to stick', it is an (A) word. The total number of words and the breakdown of each category are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: College English word list

Category	**No. of words**	**Changes**
E	1,620	0
I (CEB4)	2,622	280 more(214 from CEB 6 and 66 New)
A (CEB6)	1,366	240 more (21 from CEB 4 and 219 New)
*not classified	42	1 less
Total	**5,650**	**520**

* Words that do not have any categorization.

The latest College English word list was revised in 1999. Some technical or science-related words were removed from the old CEB4 list e.g. *conversion, cubic, gaseous, inventor, operational, reliability, rotation, spacecraft, thickness*, or moved to beyond CEB6 e.g. *circumference, gauge, shear*.

The recent revision of the College English word list (1999) witnessed the change of role of English in China. There are words for everyday life, e.g. *belly, bin, cab, chap, cop, cute, lad* and words related to computer usage, e.g. *click, default, download, email, internet*. The intention of such inclusion is apparent. Learners do not necessarily learn English for translation and interpretation anymore. There is a growing demand for living English for understanding foreign culture and communicating with English speakers. There is also widespread computer usage in schools and at work. These words might not be the most common words in the frequency count but are useful in everyday communication and are chosen, and seemingly subjectively, at the compilers' discretion.

The word lists in China are for teaching and assessment purposes. According to the syllabus description, the words are chosen on the assumption that learners will be using English as a tool and to acquire information for their discipline. The revised syllabus word lists saw an inclusion of Chinese cultural-specific words, modern English, computer and science related terms and names of food. The choice of the

words perhaps suggests a change of life style, the role of English and the political and economical situation in China.

According to the College English Syllabus for Arts and Science students (1995 revised in 1999), the words were selected from twenty-five sources. The source materials were:

1. Helen Barnard, *Advanced English Vocabulary,* 1975.
2. Michael West, *A General Service List of English Words,* 1977.
3. A.W. Frisby, *Longman First English Dictionary,* 1984.
4. Roland Hindmarsh, *Cambridge English Lexicon,* 1980.
5. Qinghua University, *3,000 Active Words of Science and Technology*
6. J.G. Hargrave, *Paragon Dictionary,* 1954.
7. *A New Essential English-Chinese Dictionary,* Hong Kong Edition.
8. J.R. Shaw, *The New Horizon Ladder Dictionary of the English Language,* 1970.
9. A.W. Frisby, *Longman Junior English Dictionary,* 1977.
10. Michael West, *An International Reader's Dictionary,* 1977.
11. A.P. Cowie, *Oxford Keys English Dictionary,* 1980.
12. Zheng Yili, *English-Chinese Dictionary,* 1957.
13. Gao Mingkai, *Active English Vocabulary,* 1972.
14. E.L. Thorndike, *The Thorndike Century Junior Dictionary,* 1953.
15. E.L. Thorndike and I. Lorge, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words,* 1963.

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16. *Collins Cobuild dictionary* (level 5 – the most frequent words)

17. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 1995* (speaking) – 3,000 words

18. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 1995* (writing) – 3,000 words

19. *Oxford Word Power Dictionary* (3,000 words with *)

20. *DG* (外研社 <<英語建宏多功能詞典>>)

21. *The New Horizon Ladder Dictionary of the English Language* (level 1 – 1,000 words)

22. *JD* (上海交大語料, level 1 – the most frequent words, 1,200 words)

23. *American Heritage* (high frequency words)

24. *The Brown corpus* (high frequency words)

25. *The LOB corpus* (high frequency words)

[#16 to #25 were added as source materials in the word list revision in 1999.]

The College English Syllabus Revision Team (1995: 16-17) also stated in the syllabus the selection principles adopted in drawing up the word list:

i) words listed within the 3,000 word range in more than 5 of the word lists are chosen for consideration for Levels E and I. In accordance with the English Syllabus for Middle Schools and the middle school textbooks now in use, 1,630 are graded E and the rest graded I;

ii) words listed within the 4,500 word range in more than 5 of the word lists are graded I and those listed within the 6,000 word range are graded A;

iii) the *Oxford Elementary Learner's Dictionary* and *The Threshold Level* and the frequency counts of more than 10 textbooks (both imported and domestic) were consulted;

iv) according to the needs of English language teaching in China, a few rarely used words (like zodiac) were omitted while a few newly coined words which are gaining frequency (like xerox) were added.

Huang and Yang (1990) were convinced that the selection of words in the College English Syllabus was based on a scientific and corpus-based approach and was refined by compilers' and teachers' intuition, knowledge and experience. However, when the compilers chose these twenty-five source materials, it was already a subjective decision. Moreover, the fifteen dictionary sources are not corpora. They are just lists of words. No frequency count can be done on these lists of words. It is necessary to rely on subjective judgement regarding what to choose to teach. All the word list compilation criteria in China are subjective.

Some of the source materials are based on corpora of written text, for example, the Brown corpus and the LOB corpus. For these lists, the frequency of words is known and the selection is objective. But many of the source materials give no clues about the compilation process and the source of words, for example, *3,000 Active Words of Science and Technology* by Qinghua University and *Active English Vocabulary* by Gao Mingkai (1972). Also we cannot assume that all dictionaries would use the same methods of frequency count. Although some of the source materials referred to the

most frequent words, for example, the most frequent 1,200 words from *JD* (上海交大語料, level 1), the source texts and the corpus size are not known.

The College English word list relies heavily on dictionary sources. There are altogether fifteen different dictionaries varying from an edition from the 50's to those compiled in the 90's and ranging from dictionaries for junior learners to advanced learners. As Nesi (2001) has pointed out, flagging of high frequency words in dictionaries has helped syllabus designers to choose which words to teach. Perhaps that explains why dictionaries were chosen as source materials.

The College English syllabus mentions that further selection was made amongst the most frequent 100,000 lexical items that have 30,000 semantic values (p.15). However, it is not clear how the most frequent 100,000 lexical items were chosen from these dictionary sources as the dictionaries do not indicate frequency consistently in the same way.

Although it has been claimed that the selected words are the most needed words for Chinese learners in both written and spoken discourse, almost all the twenty-five sources are based on written materials. Only in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* are the most frequent 3,000 words in a spoken corpus mentioned. Zhao (1992) and Lau (1995) suggested that academic vocabulary needed for listening and speaking might not be the same as academic vocabulary for reading and writing. They concluded that Chinese learners need to develop separate

vocabulary items for speaking and listening and for reading and writing. However, if most of the words from the syllabus were chosen from written sources, the words most needed in listening and speaking might not necessarily be represented.

The presentation of the College English word list is different from that of the word lists for JSS and SSS. Words with different semantic and syntactic structures are listed under the same headword. Multi-words units are also listed under the related headword. For example: "take advantage of" is listed under "advantage". All the semantic forms are given in L1. The list does not include irregular forms of nouns, adjectives and adverbs or inflected forms of verbs. Proper nouns are not included except some continents and a few country names, e.g. England, which have a very high frequency. Compound nouns are not included "if their components have already been listed and their meanings are self-evident" (College English Syllabus Revision Team 1995:14). However, the meanings of compound nouns do not seem to be self-evident at all. Like the word lists for JSS and SSS, derivatives with a comparatively high frequency and a slightly different lexical meaning or slight changes in spelling, (e.g. late, lately; admit, admission) are included as separate vocabulary items. Homonyms are listed as separate entries.

The presentation of the word lists in China has the following features:

1. Derivatives that are categorized as Levels 3 to 6 (see Bauer and Nation 1993: 254 for information about the 6 levels of word family, inflection and affixation) are

entered as individual headwords, e.g. *agree, disagree* and *agreement, possible, possibility, possibly* and *impossible, drive* and *driver*. The base form is recognizable as a freely occurring word. Following the Level 2 categorisation of inflection and affixation (Bauer and Nation 1993: 254), different inflections of the same base word are counted as members of the same family. So, *began* and *begun, better* and *best,* and *geese* are entered next to the headwords *begin, good* and *goose*. However, some selected comparative adjectives are also listed as separate vocabulary items. So, *better* and *best* are also found as individual headwords.

2. The category of the word and its translated meanings are given. Different semantic structures under the same syntactic category are listed under the same headword. e.g. *cell* (n) means a) cubicle in prison; b) small room in convent; c) little hole in the hive; d) a biological term.

3. The different spellings of the same word are given next to the headword, e.g. *metre (Br.)* and *meter (Am.), defence (Br.)* and *defense (Am.)*.

4. Contracted forms and collocations of some selected words are given under the headword, e.g. *Christmas* and *Christmas card, Christmas tree* and *Christmas Eve, fit* and *fitting-room, does* and *doesn't, can, cannot* and *can't.*

5. Abbreviations and gender-marked words are entered as separate vocabulary items. So *Dr. (doctor), F (female), mm (millimeter), chairman, chairwoman, hero, heroine* are all headwords in the word lists.

The word lists in China represent the requirements for teaching and learning vocabulary, and this is particularly helpful in the Chinese context where standardisation, homogenity and a heavy washback effect are expected (see Chapter Two). However, the national syllabuses which include the word list are not readily available for teachers. They have limited circulation amongst publishers, syllabus designers, textbook writers and the Dean/Head teacher of each school/university. The information about what words to be taught and assessed is channeled through the Intensive English textbooks.

4.5 Problems with the word lists in China

Although the College English word list has been used for more than ten years already, there are always questions and challenges from teachers concerning its validity as a teaching word list for all non-English major learners. Yu (1992) criticises the College English word list for its use of outdated base lists. He points out that some of these lists were compiled in the 50's and the 60's. Also six of the lists have less than 4,500 words and 10 have less than 6,000 words.

Yu (ibid) revealed that the [I] and [A] words were not referenced to all the fifteen base lists. Yu further argued that the grading of the words according to frequency

shown on the lists is not valid as the source constructing the corpus and the purpose of these lists are not the same. He illustrated this with an example of the word '*headmaster*' which is graded [E] in the national word list, but is graded as level 5 in the *Cambridge English Lexicon* (Hindmarsh 1980) as one of the least frequent words. As the word lists in China are compiled for teaching purposes at different levels of schooling, there needs to be careful criteria-referenced grading of word.

Liu et al. (1992) query the fairness of the common word list for all Arts and Science students. They claim that the new word list ignores the needs of the medical college students who are also non-English major. They allege that the compilers were biased against medical English. They found that the coverage of the medical words in the English syllabus is minimal. When they compared the common word list with the most frequent words appearing in the abstracts of British Medline Base 1989-1990, they found that C(E) provides 93.47% useful words to the medical students. However, the number drops drastically at C(I) and C(A) levels. Only 29.5% of the words in C(I) and 13.26% in C(A) are useful to medical students. They claimed that medical English was largely ignored by the list compilers and neglected in the syllabus word list. In another study, Huang and Yang (1990) suggested that more politically useful words should be included since political education is important in the Chinese context.

At CEB4 level, learners are expected to know an accumulation of about 4,000 vocabulary items of which some 2,300 are productive vocabulary. As Dong (1992)

mentions, the national syllabus failed to specify the words to be learnt as productive vocabulary or receptive vocabulary. Hong (1990) pointed out that teachers were not clear which meanings were most useful and frequent, to include in their teaching. They request a more informative indication to the teachers on how to treat the words in the word list.

The College English word list is particularly ambiguous in categorising headwords. For example, *state* is placed as a headword and is graded as (E). But, under this headword, *state* is further categorised as a noun, graded as (E) and a verb, graded as (I). In another example, *leave* as a verb is placed as a headword twice, graded (E) and (I). Under the first *leave*, as a verb, the different semantic structures are categorised as (E), (I) and (A), taught at different levels of schooling. The second *leave* appears as another headword as (I). The different semantic structures of *leave* as a noun are graded as (I) under this same headword. The rationale for headword entry is unclear – why are different gradings sometimes given under the headword and what factors determine entry status?

Although the national word lists are such a determinant factor in Chinese learners' vocabulary development, there exists no committee or working group to overlook systematic vocabulary development across the different stages of English education. The new development of JSS was undertaken by the SEdC in co-operation with a group of appointed university professors. The revision of SSS was assigned to Beijing

Normal University. Both lists were released in late 2001 and further modification is still ongoing.

The revised word list for College English in 1999 revealed another editorial problem. It was claimed that 214 words were moved from the CEB6 to CEB4 and an additional 66 new words were put in the CEB4. When these words were added to the old database of the College English word list, it was found that the majority of the new words already existed as (I) words in the old list. Some of the 'CEB6' words assigned to CEB4 are actually (I) words in the old list. The confusion of grading and revision imply problems in typography, bureaucracy, and management beyond the scope of this study. But the impact can be devastating as it is the leading document for all vocabulary planning, development and teaching in the country.

The specific number and types of words prescribed in the national syllabus provide a clear guideline for teaching and learning. However, it also restricts the choice of teaching and learning as no textbook writers, teachers and learners will deviate from the word list.

The number and types of words to be learnt are manipulated by a group of syllabus designers. The question of the quantity and difficult level of the words is not discussed. Why do learners in China have to learn these specific 5,000 words at university? Why do they have to learn some particular meanings of the words and not others?

4.6 The nature of word lists in China

When a pedagogical word list is drafted, much thought is given to the usefulness of these words to the learners. Although the word lists in China are outcomes of subjective decisions, the learning objectives have to be clear. Without knowing the nature of the words in the word lists, we simply do not know if the lists are just a display of "lexical formality" with no clear learning objective.

I adopted a systematic approach to examining the three syllabus word lists in China. I first cross-checked the three syllabus word lists to see if there was any overlap. The three syllabus word lists were then matched with the *GSL* (West 1953), *VocabProfile* (Nation 1986) and *AWL* (Coxhead 1998). The *GSL* was chosen because it is generally accepted that it provides the most frequent 2,000 words for all ESL/EFL learners and a knowledge of it will provide 80% coverage of texts (Nation 2001). The word lists in China were first matched with the *GSL*. Then the words beyond the *GSL* list were compared with the VP3 of *VocabProfile* to see if they were the frequent words in upper secondary and university textbooks noted by Nation (1996). Finally, the remaining words which did not match the *GSL* and *VocabProfile* were compared with the *AWL*. (The complete lists of *GSL*, *VocabProfile* and *AWL* can be found in the CD rom.)

The syllabus word lists were compared with the other ESL word lists in order to understand the kinds of word available in the word lists and the kinds of words that

Chinese learners know. The word lists were compared with the help of a computer program called WordSmith Tools 3.0 (Scott 1998). The word lists in their text file format were transferred to the computer program to generate frequency counts. The wordlist files were compared to check for the common and different words, using "compare two lists" from WordSmith Tools 3.0.

According to the word list design initiatives, the C(E) words are words which have already been acquired before entering university. It can, therefore, be assumed that all C(E) words will be found in the JSS and SSS word lists. It was found that the two word lists used in the secondary schools cover almost 97% of the C(E) words. At the same time, the JSS and SSS word lists provide an additional 1,907 "other" words (58% of the total words for secondary school word lists) for acquisition (Figure 1).

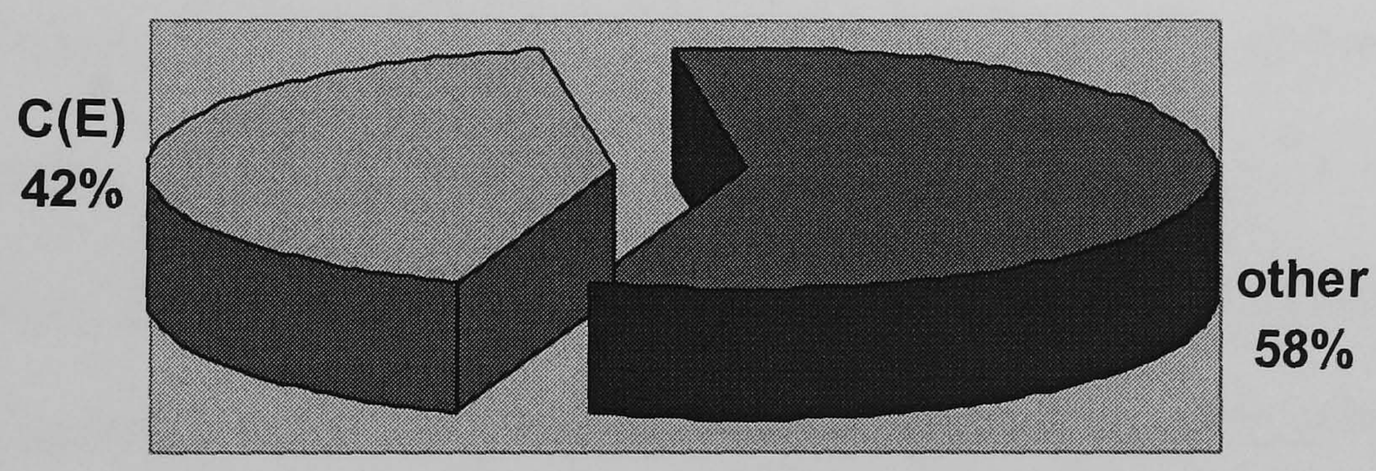

Figure 1: The JSS and SSS word lists

Among the 1,907 "other" words, 55% (i.e.1,051 words) are C(I) words which will receive intensive exposure in the university for the CET4 and 6.6% (i.e. 126 words) are in C(A) to be acquired at CEB6 (see Figure 2 below). The remaining 38.4% (i.e. 730 words) are not found in the College English word list.

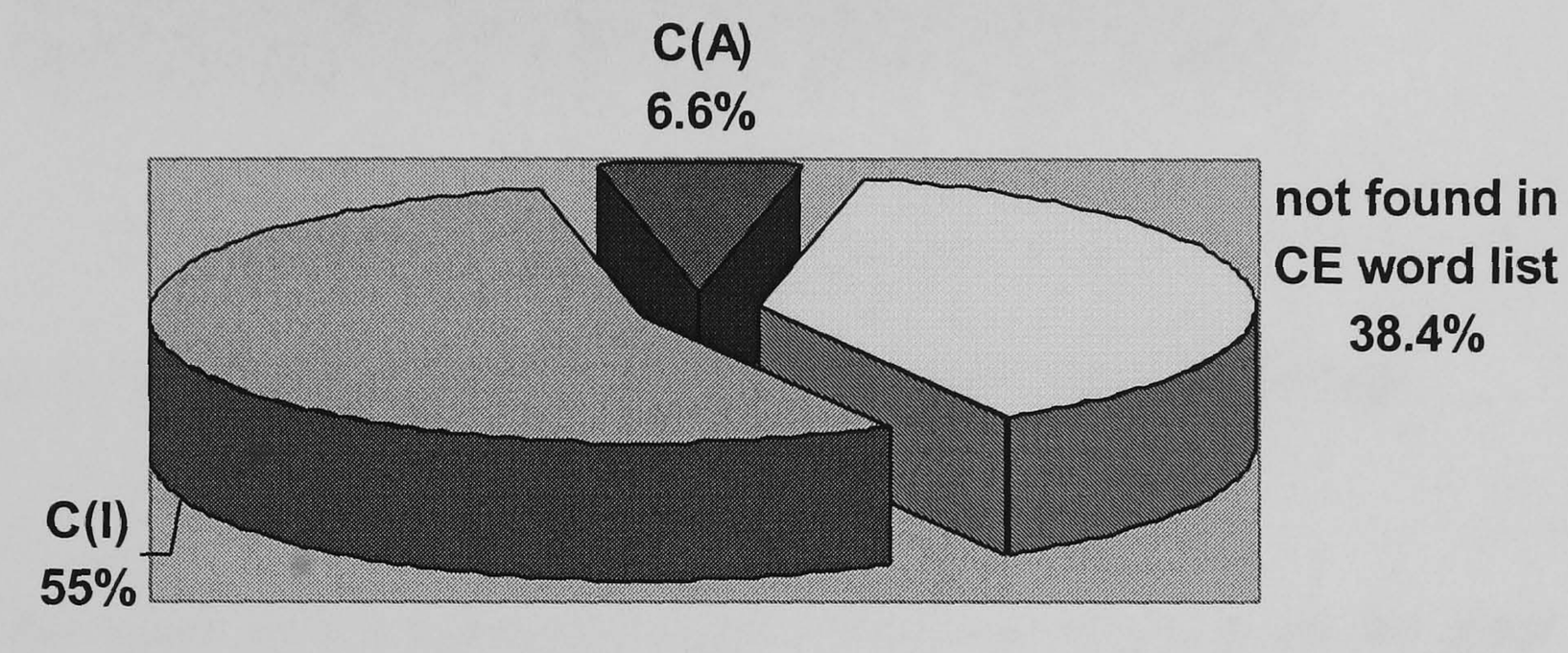

Figure 2: Distribution of the extra words in JSS and SSS word lists

A comparison between the word lists in secondary school and the *GSL* showed that 84% of the secondary school word lists belonged to the most frequent 2,000 words (see Figure 3 below). So, the majority of the words learnt at secondary schools are basic and high frequency words. Only 3% of the words fall into the *AWL*. When the words were matched with the *VP3*, it showed another 6% coverage.

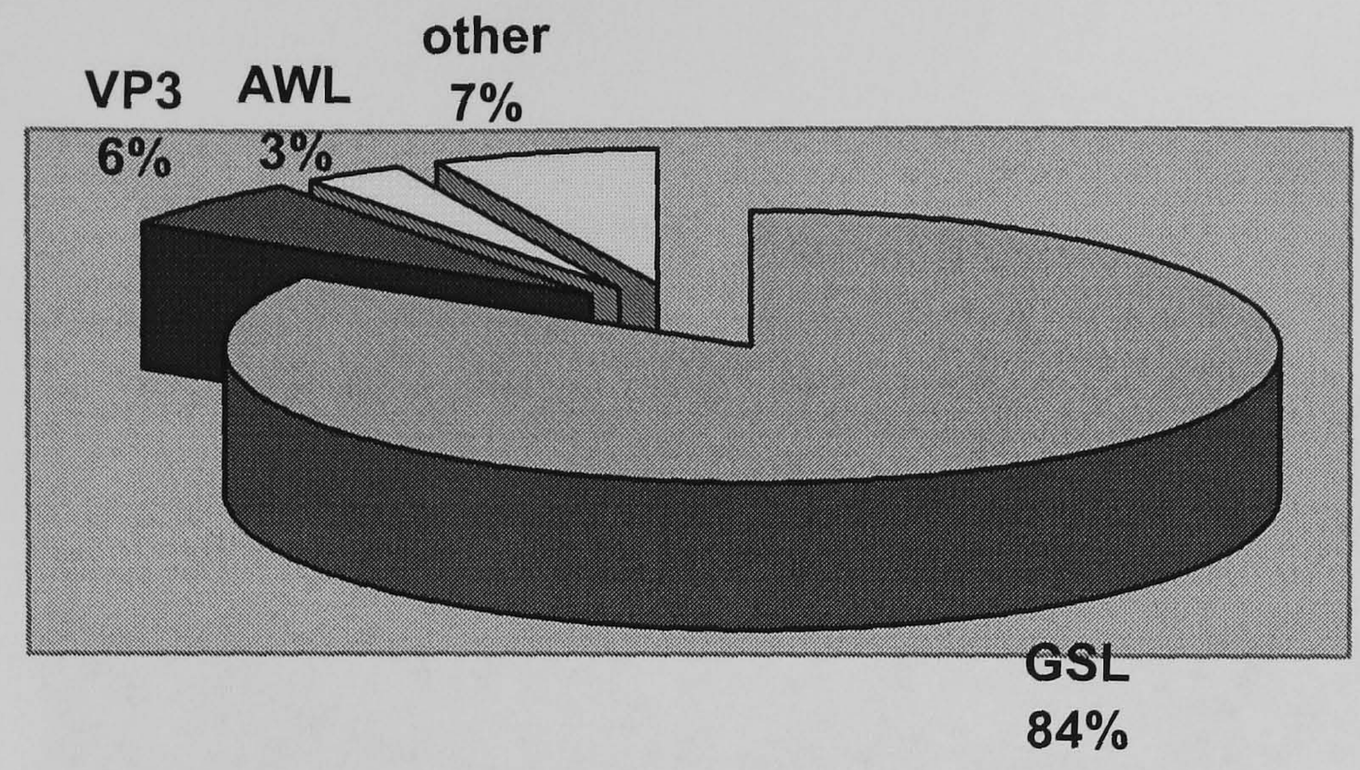

Figure 3: The distribution of words in the secondary school word lists

About 7% of the words are not the most frequent words or academic words for upper secondary and university learners (see JSS and SSS words not found in *GSL* and *VP3* in CD rom). These include abbreviations, proper nouns, compound nouns, irregular verbs, derivations, inflected forms, days and months, and fillers. Lexical sets, such as irregular verbs, inflections or some derived forms which might not be taken into consideration in other word lists, deserve separate entries as the Chinese language system does not have such lexical features.

Chinese EFL learners when they graduate from the university should have acquired all the C(E) and C(I) words prescribed in the national syllabus. When the C(E) and C(I) were matched with the *GSL*, it was found that there are 1,897 words in common (see Figure 4 below). In other words, university graduates will have learnt 95% of the

most frequent words of English. The C(A) provides another 2% (41) coverage of the *GSL*.

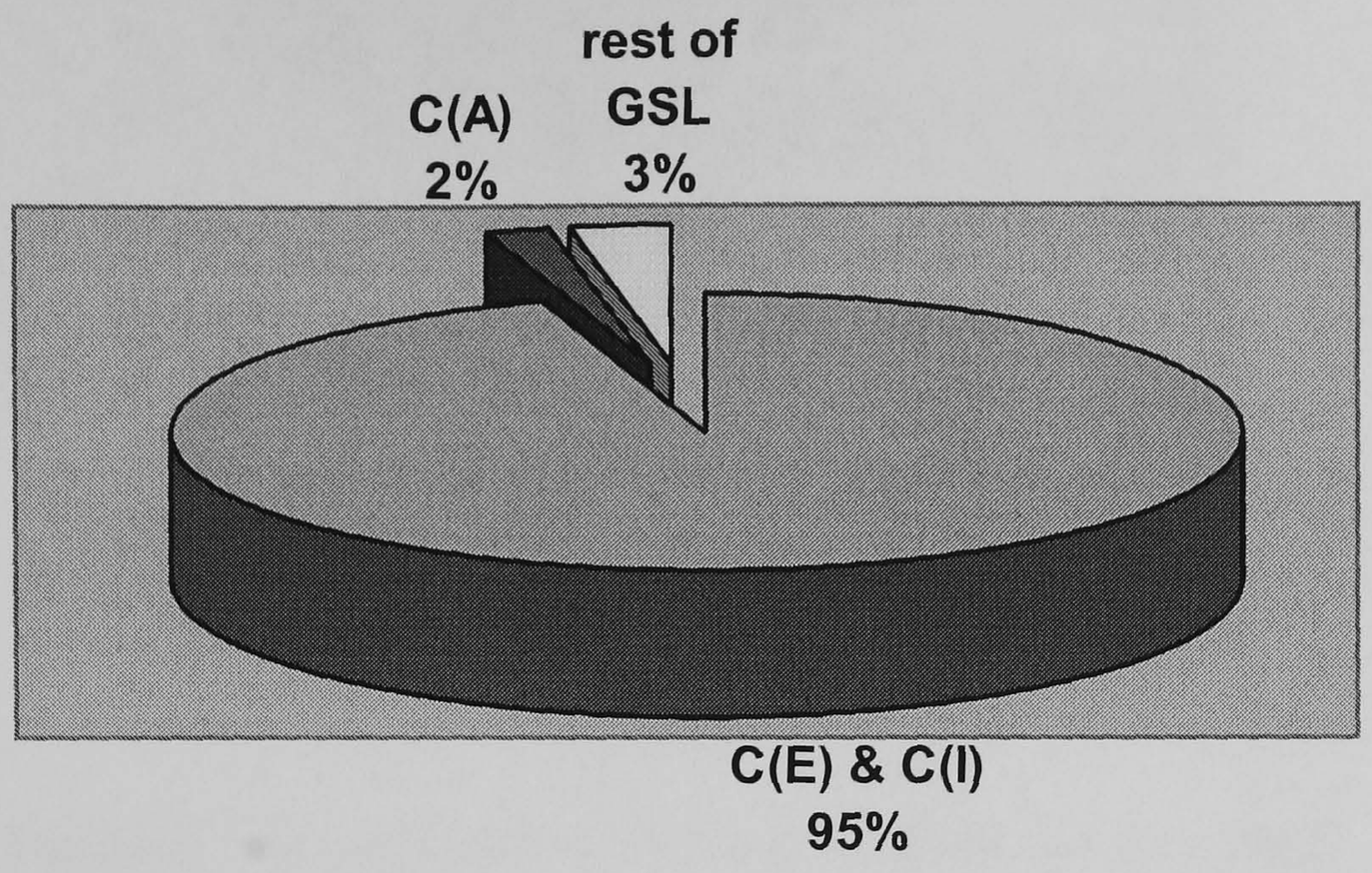

Figure 4: The proportion of College English words in *GSL*

The C(E) and C(I) lists were then matched with *AWL* which is assumed to contain important words for university students. It was found that College English graduates will have acquired 352 word families in the *AWL*, accounting for 8.26% of the total C(E) and C(I) or 61.8% of the *AWL* (see Figure 5 below). Knowing the C(A) words will give an extra 21% coverage of the *AWL*.

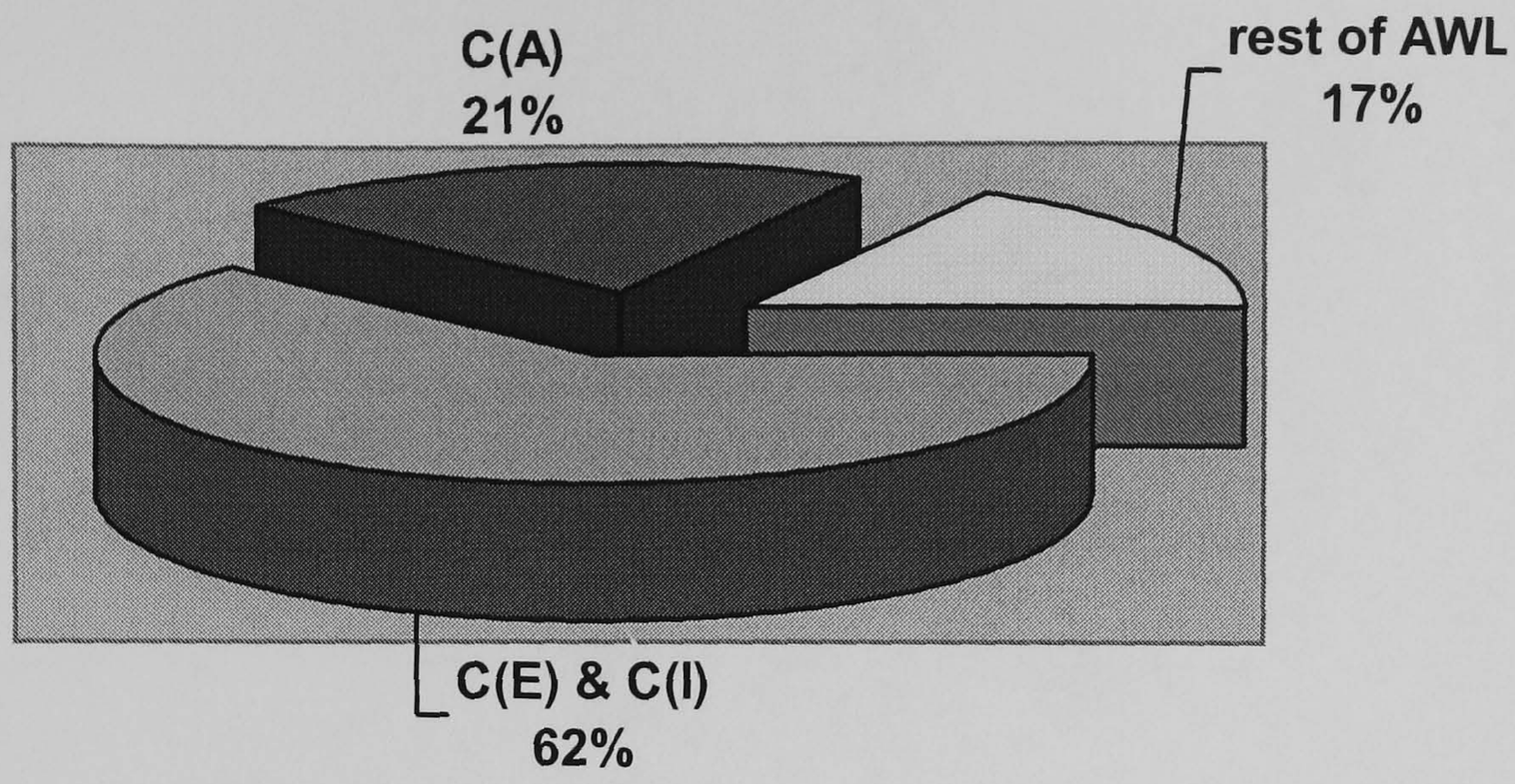

Figure 5: The proportion of College English words in *AWL*

Figure 6 below gives an overview of the distribution of College English words for CEB4. About 44% of the C(E) and C(I) words in the College English syllabus do not fall into *GSL, VP3* or *AWL*. Some of these words are derived forms, e.g. *competition, competitive, manager, management*, that are grouped under a headword. Some of the words are directions, e.g. *northeast, northwest, northern*, days and months, e.g. *November, Monday,* or exclamations and interjections, e.g. *OK, Hi,* which are not likely to be the most frequent words in most ESL/EFL word lists, which are mainly based on written corpora. This further highlights the high degree of subjectivity involved in choosing these words for inclusion from the source materials for the College English word list.

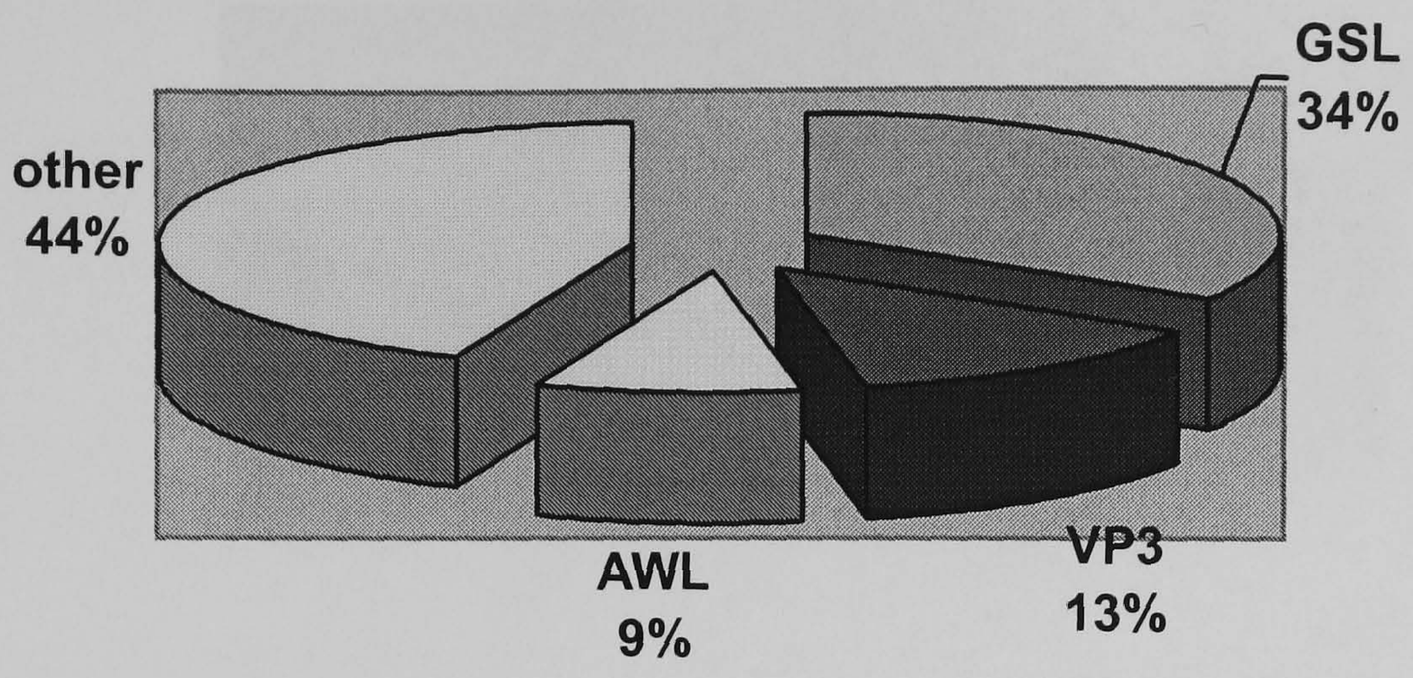

Figure 6: Nature of the College English word list for CEB4

One might expect that there would be fewer C(A) words in the *GSL* and more in *AWL* or *VP3* when learners proceed to a higher level of study. However, it turns out that the majority of the C(A), about 74% of them, cannot be found in the frequency lists used in this study. The words which fall outside the frequency lists belong to specific field of discourse, e.g. *catastrophe, alloy, inject, synthesis, radioactive*. In CEB6, learners acquire words which are less frequent in general English but more frequent in specific communication contexts.

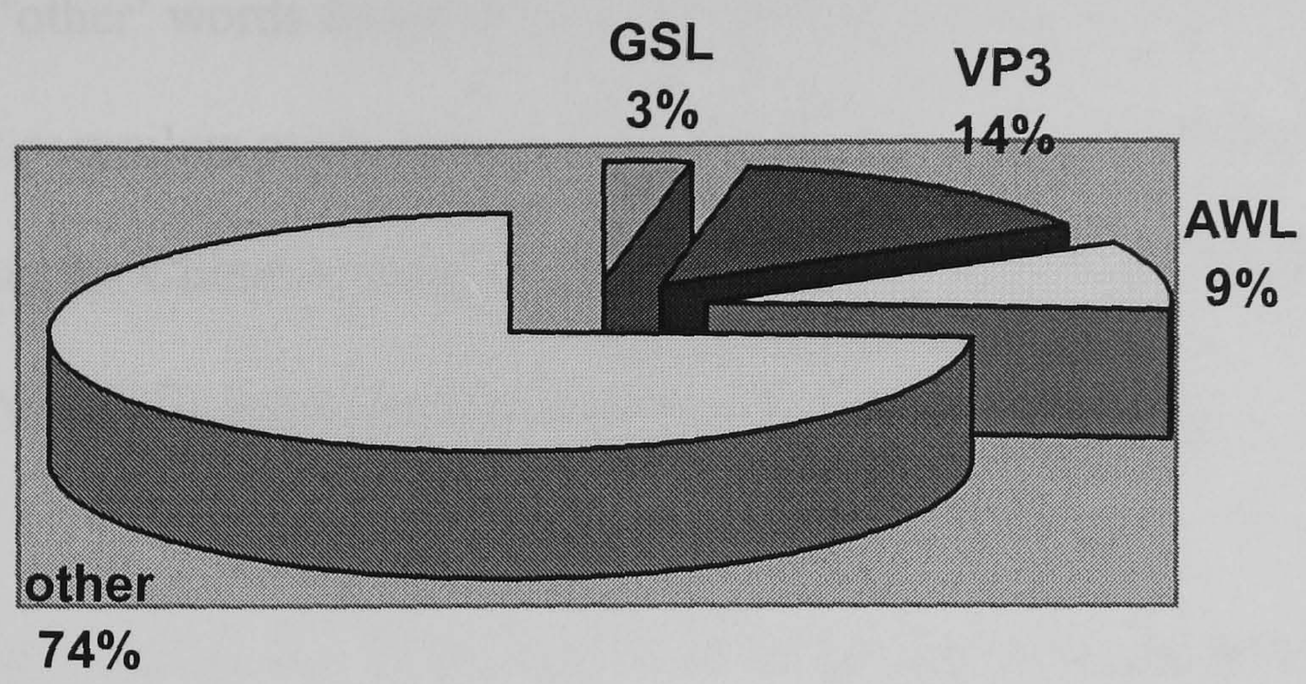

Figure 7: Nature of the College English word list for CEB6

More advanced learners learn less basic vocabulary (see Table 4 below). Although academic vocabulary is considered a high priority for learners who wish to do academic study in English and for academic success (Corson 1997, Coxhead and Nation 2001), Chinese learners do not have any immediate need to know these academic words as all subjects are taught in the medium of Chinese. They need the academic words when they are studying abroad or working with foreign institutions.

Table 4: Summary of the proportion of words found in other frequency lists

Word list	GSL	VP3	AWL	other	Total
JSS + SSS	84%	6%	3%	7%	100%
C(E) + C(I)	34%	13%	9%	44%	100%
C(A)	3%	14%	9%	74%	100%

A large number of 'other' words found in the College English word lists could suggest that the list compilers might have a different perception of vocabulary needs and vocabulary input for Chinese learners. (Please refer to the CD ROM for the lists of the words in C(E) + C (I) and C(A not found in *GSL* and *AWL*.)

The College English word list was drafted in the 80's and revised in the 90's with no major changes except the shuffling of some words between CEB4 and CEB6 and the addition of some words to the two bands. Most of the words that were considered "important" twenty years ago still constitute the backbone of the existing word list. At that time, translators were in demand and English was learnt to translate literature, scientific works, economical and finance reports, etc. for the majority of the people to read. The "other" words could have been the consequence of political, social and economical decisions made at that time.

I was not able to discover how the "other" words in the word list were chosen. There has been no research to see if these are the vocabulary items that the Chinese learners need and if the proportion is right for them. We do know that learners are incapable of "using" the words they learned at school. It seems that no matter how large the vocabulary size they developed, most of the word knowledge remains as passive.

The 97% coverage of the C(E) at secondary school level suggests that the university English teachers only need to concentrate on the teaching of the C(I), and the C(A) if it is targeted for the CET6. The number of explicitly treated words is diminished by

one-third and the demand on teaching will at the same time be reduced. One could expect an observable difference in treating the C(E) and the C(I) words in the classroom. It could also be assumed that more consolidation and production work would be done on the C(E) words and more teaching, presentation and practice on the C(I) words as they are new to the students. Although the syllabus does not identify productive words, the higher level of treatment of C(E), the known words, will facilitate the transition from receptive vocabulary to productive vocabulary.

The overlapping of C(I) words suggests that there is a consistency between word lists at secondary level and at university level. It is also noted that half of the total number of words in the lists will be recycled at university, facilitating better vocabulary retention and recall. This also implies that the vocabulary teaching load at secondary schools is heavier than before. The acquisition of English words at secondary level is not restricted to the words prescribed by the word list. Learners have exposure to other words which are not necessarily tested in the examination. The allegation that learning is only undertaken for the sake of examinations might not be absolutely true in this case.

To sum up, a typical university graduate in China attempting CEB4 will have learned most of the basic vocabulary and 62% of the academic words in the *AWL*. If the higher level of CEB6 is attempted, he or she will know as much as 83% of the *AWL* (Table 5). However, the figures suggest that the vocabulary size of the Chinese learners might not achieve the threshold coverage of 95% for successful reading, as

defined by Nation (2001). The fact that Chinese learners do not seem to have immediate needs for academic words probably explains why this is the case.

Table 5: Coverage of the College English word list

	GSL	**AWL**
C(E) + C(I)	95%	62%
C(A)	2%	21%
Total	**95%**	**83%**

In the College English syllabus word list of 5,607 words, most of the words are designated to more than one word class. For example, *wonder* is introduced in its verb and noun forms. About 47% of the College English words are taught as nouns and 18% are adjectives (see Table 6 below). As nouns and adjectives which are often concrete words are easier to learn, the pedagogical implications of this are obvious. Teachers should not spend too much time teaching the literal meaning of these high frequency words. The teaching of these words should include the analysis of the grammatical, sociocultural and sociolinguistic behaviour of these words (Miyazaki 2001).

Table 6: Distribution of College English word list by word class

Word classes	Number of words
noun	3,985
verb	2,372
adjective	1,498
adverb	314
preposition	113
pronoun	76
conjunction	43
interrogation	11
article	4
abbreviation	4
Total	**8,420**

4.7 Textbook word lists: words for intensive and extensive exposure

The syllabus word lists are not designed for "list learning". The words are to be embedded in the passages of the textbooks and treated intensively by the teachers in the classroom. The textbooks which embody the vocabulary requirement belong to the College English textbook series. The series consists of Intensive Reading, Extensive Reading, Focus Listening, Fast Reading and Grammar and Exercises.

However, most of the 280 semester hours are spent on Intensive Reading and at the

teacher's discretion only a minimal number of hours are spent on Extensive Reading and Focus Listening.

The College English Intensive Reading textbooks are the major textbooks for English lessons at university (see Chapter Two, Section 2.1 for the syllabus issue). The role of the IR textbooks is to provide a platform to acquire the words prescribed in the College English syllabus. The "important" words are glossed and highlighted and teachers will know that these require explicit and intensive treatment. The complete IR word lists are word-processed and saved in the CD rom. The total number of glossed words in the four IR textbooks is given in Table 7.

Table 7: Number of words in the College English Intensive Reading textbooks

	CEBs 1-4	**CEBs 5-6**	**Beyond CEB6**	**Total**
presupposed word list	/	/	/	1,879
Book 1	913	67	347	1,327
Book 2	825	123	467	1,415
Book 3	784	114	413	1,311
Book 4	647	134	503	1,284
Total	3,169	438	1,730	7,216

[Source: Dong (ed.) 1997. *College English: Intensive Reading (revised edition).* Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.]

The presupposed word list is a collection of words which are supposed to have been acquired in secondary schools. It is included in the *College English Intensive Reading*, Book 1 as a reference list.

The four IR textbooks include far more words than are required by the College English syllabus. Altogether there are 7,216 glossed words to be taught in the 280 semester hours, whereas the College English syllabus expects 2,622 of C(I) only. There are plenty of "extra" words. There is no explanation of how the choice of these "extra" glossed words was made. But the chief editor of the series has pointed out that in order to understand the reading materials in the textbooks, students need to know vocabulary beyond the national wordlist (Dong 1992). The "extra" glossed words aid understanding of the reading passages. So, the passage on "The making of a surgeon" (Book 2, Unit 6) has words like *resident, surgical, competently, emergency,* etc., and the passage on "Big bucks the easy way" (Book 4, Unit 1) has *thoughtful, cash, competitive, deadline,* etc. which are beyond the most frequent basic and academic vocabulary as well as the syllabus word list. The choice and variety of passages determine the vocabulary input.

One other possible reason for including a larger number of vocabulary items could be the fact that about 3% of the words in the CET will be taken beyond the syllabus word list. This encourages textbook writers and teachers to teach more words than required. However, Dong admitted that there are problems in deciding how much more should be included and how to treat these words in teaching.

As mentioned previously in the last section, 730 words from the JSS and SSS word lists are not found in the College English word list. Among them, 112 (6%) appear in the IR word lists, but the remaining 618 words which are listed in the secondary school syllabus will not recur in university study.

The four books of *College English: Intensive Reading* and the C(E) and C(I) have 3,398 words in common. They only cover about 81% of the C(E) and C(I) lists as opposed to the 90% alleged by the series editor (Dong 1992). The IR textbooks do not provide a full coverage of all the C(E) and C(I) words. About 19% (787 words) of the prescribed words for CEB4 cannot be found in the IR textbooks although the IR textbooks are supposed to be the means to attain the vocabulary requirement of the national syllabus. The national examination of CET4 aims to create a washback effect on teaching and learning but the fact that 19% of word list words are left out in the IR textbooks will definitely disadvantage both teachers and learners. Moreover, even though the textbooks cover 81% of the words in the syllabus word list, they do not necessarily cover all the different meanings of the words in their different parts of speech.

The IR textbooks were updated in 1997. However, the problem of meeting the national vocabulary requirement for CET4 will remain the same because the passages were not changed. Between 2000 and 2001, the State Education Committee endorsed the publication of new College English textbooks, e.g. *The Twenty-first Century*

College English. It is not clear whether the books provide a full coverage of the syllabus word list.

Although the existing College English IR textbooks do not provide a full coverage of the words prescribed in the syllabus, they do offer a richer lexical context than the College English syllabus requires. The IR textbooks introduce 2,631 more words from the syllabus word list to learners. Thirty-six of these are also in the *GSL* and ninety-three can be found in the *AWL*. This confirms the trend of moving away from learning high frequency words to academic words at College English level.

The large number of additional words in the IR glossary reflects the teaching beliefs of the textbook writers. On the one hand, they work in accordance with the vocabulary requirement in the syllabus; on the other hand, they included words which they believed to be difficult for the learners. There are compound nouns, e.g. *freight train*, *thought-provoking,* proper names, e.g. *Tibetan, Adamson, TAFTE,* derived and inflected forms, e.g. *biology, biologist, biological, biologically*, phrasal verbs, e.g. *build on, build up* and topic-specific terms, e.g. *stalagmite, sulphur*. There are also phrases and expressions in the IR word lists, e.g. *agree with somebody, take one's time, the day after tomorrow.* The teaching of vocabulary in the IR textbooks embraces a broader perspective than other pedagogical word lists do. It also predicts lexical problems from the point of view of a Chinese learner.

One of my concerns in the case of the syllabus word list is the sequence of the words presented to the learners. There is no observable system or sequence in incorporating the vocabulary items in the textbook passages. A systematic way of teaching vocabulary can promote acquisition. According to Meara (1984) and Gui (1993), Chinese learners best learn vocabulary items with phonological representation and in a semantic network. But there is no sign of such emphasis in the textbooks or the teacher's books which teachers follow closely.

The teaching of the new words in the IR lessons provides intensive exposure to vocabulary. The Extensive Reading textbooks offer another source of vocabulary input. But ER lessons are not frequent. Some teachers said that they would have one ER lesson every few weeks or a month depending on the progress of the IR lessons. It is assumed that learners will go through the units and exercises themselves in their own time and that the teacher will go through the answers to the exercises with them in class. (A sample unit of *College English* Extensive Reading is documented in the CD ROM.)

The Extensive Reading textbooks have a list of glossed words at the end of the book which require special attention from the learners. (The complete ER word lists can be found in the CD rom.) The total number of words is given in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Number of words in the College English Extensive Reading textbooks

	CEBs 1-4	**CEBs 5-6**	**Beyond CEB6**	**Total (textbook)**
Book 1	557	37	61	655
Book 2	423	117	236	776
Book 3	416	127	381	924
Book 4	545	212	600	1,357
Total (band)	1,941	493	1,278	**3,712**

[Source: Dong (ed.) 1997. *College English: Extensive Reading (revised edition).* Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.]

Although the ER lessons do not offer any intensive treatment of words, the textbooks do provide extensive exposure to new words for acquisition. As mentioned earlier on, 19% of the C(E) and (I) words are "missed out" in the IR textbooks. So this 19% of words was taken to match with the ER word list using the same procedure described above. It was found that 305 (about 7%) of the "missing" words appeared in the ER textbooks. However, these words are not treated as intensively as they would be if they appeared in the ER textbooks. Learners are not exposed to the rest of the C(E) and C(I) that are not found in IR and ER textbooks unless they appear naturally in the teacher's talk which is another source of vocabulary for acquisition.

1,689 common words are found in IR and ER textbooks and are also in the College English word list. This implies that about 40 % of the words from the College English

syllabus will be taught explicitly by the teachers and recur in the ER textbooks resulting in repeated exposure for better retention and recall. The Extensive Reading textbooks provide learners with an additional 2,176 words for acquisition in their two years of College English education.

Of all the extra IR and ER words which are not listed in the syllabus, only about 2% (127 words) are matched with *GSL*, 10% (496 words) with *VP3*, and 3% (154 words) with *AWL*. The remaining 4,303 extra words provided in the IR and ER textbooks are the "other" words. Again, there is no observable learning goal in the two lists, the "other" words seem to be perceived as difficult words from the textbook writer's point of view.

One major problem when examining the words in the IR or ER textbooks regards word class information. In the syllabus word list, all the different semantic and syntactic structures of the same word are listed and graded as (E), (I) or (A) and all the words are tagged for word class. Textbook writers have to check the meaning of every word in the syllabus against its meaning and class in the reading passages, in order to ensure that the meaning and class of the word form in the syllabus matches the meaning and class of the word form in the textbooks. It seems unlikely that textbook writers actually do this. They are probably content to match word forms, without considering word class and meaning as this would involve an enormous amount of work. So, even though the IR textbooks provide 81% coverage for intensive exposure to the national word list, it is unclear whether learners are

introduced to the most frequent meaning at (E) level or to other meanings at (I) or (A) levels.

4.8 Assessing vocabulary

All teachers and learners in China are aware that examinations have a washback effect on the quantity and quality of teaching. Although there is no way to obtain an official examination paper for CET4, there are mock examination papers from key universities in the bookshops. Learners who have taken the CET4 have told me that mock examination papers are usually more difficult than the real one, but the format is the same. (The CET exam format is attached in Appendix 5 and a sample simulated test paper for the CET4 examination from Peking University is documented in the CD ROM.) The paper follows the format and the difficulty levels of the CET4. The test lasts for 120 minutes. The examination paper is divided into Listening Comprehension 20% (20 multiple choice questions), Reading Comprehension 40% (20 multiple choice questions), Vocabulary and Structure 15% (30 sentences with multiple choice), Cloze 10% (20 open-cloze with multiple choice), and Writing (120 words), Spot Dictation and Translation from English to Chinese 15%. The vocabulary items in the word list are embedded in all these test items. Knowledge of the pronunciation of words and an adequate inventory of receptive vocabulary is expected, as there is a listening task. A very good knowledge of vocabulary is a definite advantage in the examination.

The syllabus explicitly states that a 3% of new words are beyond the College English word list. For this reason, teachers have encouraged learners to read more. However, with limited English books in the library and a tight budget, learners are not easily exposed to a lexically rich environment. Perhaps teachers are not aware of the potential of the vocabulary input that they can provide in their own speech.

4.9 The teacher's job

Coady and Huckin (1997) declared that teachers should not only teach high-frequency words from the frequency list because lack of knowledge of low-frequency words can disrupt comprehension too. Teachers cannot assume that learners can guess from context. They also point out that teachers should not assume that learners can always learn words through extensive reading. Learners have to reach a 'threshold' of vocabulary knowledge before this is possible. Also, the teaching of academic vocabulary is important. It is perceived by learners as the most problematic lexical area and is more likely to disrupt comprehension (Lynn 1973).

Sub-technical words are difficult. Many of these words are culturally bound and distributed among a particular group of population (Corson 1995; Purves 1988). To teach these words, teachers must help learners to see the connection and differences between high-frequency meanings and technical uses as they appear in different meaning systems (Corson 1997) as learners have developed the conceptual framework of the word in the high frequency meanings. They, therefore, need to know the technical meaning. Flowerdew (1992) has shown that in academic lectures,

the discourse itself may contain deliberate definition (Flowerdew 1992). If they have adequate listening skills, learners can acquire the meaning of some technical words from lectures.

Nation (1990) suggested some ways of helping learners to learn words. He claimed that technical vocabulary is best taught within the content area; high frequency words, academic vocabulary should be taught through exercises or individual learning; while low frequency words should be dealt with through coping strategies.

In China, there is no way of knowing which are the high frequency words in the word list and which are low frequency words that deserve different treatment. Teachers only know how many words they have to teach their students. According to the College English syllabus, a secondary school graduate entering university is expected to have about 1,800 words only. The teacher's job is to raise their vocabulary size by another 4,000 words in 280 hours. Thus, it is not surprising to find teachers spending a considerable amount of time teaching vocabulary from the textbooks in class, and learners memorizing hard in order to remember the meanings of these several hundred vocabulary items for the merciless examination.

Chinese learners at university are required to learn a total of 5,650 words before graduation. With the 2,631 additional words from IR and 2,176 additional words from ER, this amounts to an exposure of 10,457 words in the two years of College English education. In the assigned 280 semester hours, they have to learn 1.3 words every two

minutes. As mentioned, the 2,679 C(I) words are expected to be taught explicitly by the teacher. It is estimated that in a two-hour lesson, a teacher has to handle explicitly eighteen new words or one new word every 6.7 minutes. Including the additional 2,176 words from the IR textbooks that are not included in the C(I), a total of 5,269 words have to be taught intensively during the whole course of College English education. Every two hours, the number of words that the teacher has to teach explicitly reaches thirty-eight, or one new word every 3.2 minutes! The vocabulary teaching load of a teacher in the Chinese classroom can hardly be imagined.

Are there really so many words to be taught in a lesson? A brief count of the new words in *College English: Intensive Reading, Book 2, Unit Five* shows that in fact teachers teach many more words than this in each lesson. Eighty-eight words are selected from the text for teaching and learning. Sixty-five of these are in bold, meaning that they are important as they are words in the syllabus word list and will be assessed during the national examination. There are another twenty-five words in the Study and Practice section and sixteen in the Reading Activity. Altogether, the teacher has to teach 129 words within a week of two two-hour lessons. In each hour, a teacher will have to go through about thirty-two words with the learners or finish explaining a new word every 1.9 minutes. The demands of the textbook, the expectation of the syllabus and the vocabulary requirement for the examination interweave with the culture of teaching and learning to constitute the pressure of teaching a huge number of words in class (Tang 2001a).

Since a large number of C(I) and some C(A) words will be covered in the SSS word list (English syllabus for senior secondary schools 2001) as well, it is important that the College English teachers are aware of such changes so that they can adjust their teaching. The vocabulary teaching load at university could be reduced and there could be more room for recycling and consolidation work. At the same time, new teaching materials which put more emphasis on the practice and application of vocabulary items could be introduced as teachers rely heavily on the textbook as a resource for teaching content and teaching methods.

4.10 Concluding remarks:

The model of English vocabulary input in China is simple and straightforward. The simplicity is the result of political decisions and cultural influences, operating through homogeneity and centralization. This is believed to be the way to achieve harmony and equality in a diverse society with a huge population. The traditional textbook centered, teaching centered and examination centered approach is reinforced by a centralized English syllabus. The relationship between word lists, textbooks, teaching and examination is linear, top-down and hierarchical. The whole word selection process is subjective. It is a decision made by a group of people at the top of the educational hierarchy. However, the realization of the vocabulary requirements is complex.

There are problems with the design of the syllabus word list:

- The source materials are too old.

- The selection criteria and the purpose of some source lists are not known.
- The over-reliance on dictionaries as source material makes it hard to choose the relevant words for a pedagogical word list as they have very different purposes.
- The learning objective of the word list is unclear as the nature of the words does not indicate any pedagogical focus and direction.
- The word list does not give enough lexical information for textbook writers and teachers. There is no information about the sequence of teaching and about the words to be learnt for productive or receptive use.
- The examination format, which echoes the vocabulary requirements in the syllabus and provides a washback effect on teaching, does not encourage a wider understanding of the notion of word knowledge. The word knowledge that the Chinese learners have is inadequate for the language demands of the modern world.

There are problems with the incorporation of words from the syllabus word list into textbooks:

- There has been no formal evaluation and checking of the textbooks regarding the fulfillment of the vocabulary requirements (the number, word class, and lexical meanings) of the College English syllabus.
- It is restrictive to have the IR textbooks, or strictly speaking passages, as a means to realise vocabulary requirements.
- The textbooks, both IR and ER, fail to incorporate all the words from the syllabus word list.

- The vocabulary teaching load in the textbooks is too heavy.
- There is no grading and sequencing of vocabulary teaching. There is no sign of consideration of other linguistic criteria, such as, grammar, spelling, pronunciation, etc.
- There are no selection criteria for the "extra" words which are beyond the requirements of the syllabus word list.
- There is no guidance, even in the Teacher's book, regarding vocabulary teaching methods.

There are fairly straightforward solutions to some of these problems and I will discuss them in the last Chapter.

The quadripartite relationship of syllabus, textbook, teacher and examination in vocabulary development raises concerns about how teachers actually help their learners to meet vocabulary requirements.

Chapter Five

Intensive and Extensive Vocabulary Treatment

The number and the types of words that a Chinese learner has to know before graduation have been discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter will investigate how Chinese teachers actualize the vocabulary requirement set in the syllabus and the textbooks. Such findings are of crucial importance to ELT research in China, as up to now, there has been very little analysis of data recorded in the Chinese classroom. Researchers and educators seem to have been more interested in investigating models of innovative teaching (MIT) than in discovering widespread existing classroom practices.

In this Chapter, extracts of classroom data are quoted to illustrate the real teaching situation in the Chinese classroom. Since teachers used a lot of Chinese, the original extracts with Chinese characters are placed in the CD ROM for cross-reference. Extracts quoted in this Chapter are all translated into English and are shown in italics. The full transcription of all lessons is also documented in the CD ROM.

5.1 The study of explicit vocabulary teaching

In this study, six teachers with five to ten years of teaching experience from three universities were invited to make a one-week recording of their College English teaching (see Table 9 below). According to the syllabus guidelines, teachers should be able to finish one Unit in a week's class time. The recorded lessons were

transcribed. All the words which were explicitly treated by the teachers were highlighted in the transcriptions for analysis.

Table 9: Background information

Teacher	Place	University	Date
T-A	Shenzhen	key university	20 May 1999 27 May 1999
T-B	Shenzhen	key university	1 May 1999 8 May 1999
T-C	Guangzhou	non-key university	14 June 1999 16 June 1999
T-D	Guangzhou	non-key university	11 May 1999 13 May 1999
T-E	Beijing	key university	24 May 1999 27 May 1999
T-F	Beijing	key university	7 June 1999 10 June 1999

Qualitative analyses were conducted on the transcripts of these twelve 2-hour lessons in order to describe the ways in which vocabulary was taught in class. Vocabulary teaching was of two kinds: planned vocabulary instruction (the teaching of words listed in the glossary and explained in the textbooks), and unplanned vocabulary instruction (Sanaoui 1996). In this study, the teaching of all the glossed words in the textbooks is considered as the teaching of planned words. The teaching of words which are not found in the glossary is taken to be the teaching of unplanned words

The analytical framework of vocabulary teaching in this study was based on the work of Ellis and his co-researchers (1994, 1995, 1999) and Tang and Nesi (forthcoming) on the different types of oral input and output in promoting vocabulary learning. Ellis' experimental design was based on the work of Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) who originally found that the learners exposed to "premodified input" (the teachers' prepared explanations) were less successful at completing a task than learners with the opportunity to receive "interactionally adjusted input" (explanations provided at the individual's request, as the need arose).

Ellis and his co-researchers (1995) isolated four experimental conditions under which their subjects had to complete a language task:

i. "unmodified input" (UMI), where new words were introduced orally without any explanation of their meaning and use,

ii. "premodified input" (PMI) where the researcher explained and repeated new words,

iii. "interactionally modified input" (IMI), where subjects could ask the researcher to clarify meaning and repeat words, and

iv. "modified (or negotiated) output" (MO), where subjects worked in pairs, negotiating word meaning between themselves (in Ellis and He 1999).

In these experiments the UMI group, which acted as a control, were the least successful learners, whilst the IMI group acquired more words than the PMI group, at least in the short term. The output condition (MO) proved most favourable of all for

vocabulary acquisition, leading Ellis and He to conclude that "dialogically symmetrical discourse seems to create better conditions for incidental vocabulary acquisition than interaction in teacher-controlled exchanges" (1999: 299).

In Ellis and his co-researchers' work, the IMI group did better than the PMI group. However, the findings do not reflect the efficiency of the different vocabulary teaching treatments in terms of the number of words acquired per minute of input. As Ellis (1995: 424) points out "although interaction led to more words being acquired, it also resulted in a conspicuously slower rate of acquisition". In Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki's experiment, for example (1995) the two premodified input groups took ten and twenty minutes to complete the task, whilst the two interactionally modified input groups both took forty-five minutes each.

Tang and Nesi (forthcoming) applied the experimental results of Ellis and co-researchers to the study of vocabulary teaching in secondary schools in Hong Kong and Guangzhou. They found that other than these four input/output types, another output type which involved unmodified substitution drills and spelling was observed in the Chinese classroom. Thus, in the present study, an extra category to reflect vocabulary teaching methods tied to substitution drills and spelling practice was added. These drill and practice treatments were categorized as "unmodified output" (UMO) to indicate the fact that there was no modification from the teacher.

5.1.1 Teaching paradigms

In the long history of ELT in China, grammar has always tended to be the focus of language teaching (Suen 1994). Although at secondary level the teaching of grammar is still the focus of each lesson, vocabulary teaching has become increasingly important at higher levels of study. This is because of the important role of reading in the English syllabuses, and the fact that after several years of study, growth in grammatical knowledge usually slows down, while knowledge of vocabulary items can continue to increase. At university level, the teaching of vocabulary is now often the focus of the lesson. Although grammar items are also included in the textbook, teachers choose to ignore this part of teaching as they believe that learners should have had acquired all the grammatical knowledge they need at secondary school. The teaching of structure no longer relies on the understanding of grammar items but on the meaning of the expression (see Example 1). Teachers do continue to provide some grammatical information, however. For example while they are explaining the derivational structure of new words they also talk about word class (see Example 2).

Example 1: (T-E-2)

82	T:	Now, Structure. Structure, we will pass it; just pay attention to two sentence structures. One is "it turned out", the other is "given". Er…. Actually it has two meanings. One is ……

Example 2: (T-B-2):

8	T:	The young man masked his hatred under an appearance of friendliness. "**hatred**" is the noun form of "hate", means "dislike".

At secondary school, the English lesson usually begins with chorus reading or recitation of the text, led by a student leader or assigned by the teacher. At university, the English lesson sometimes begins with the teaching of pronunciation, but more commonly with the teaching of vocabulary from the text. The vocabulary items are pre-selected by the textbook writers and glossed in a separate word list at the end of the text. The following excerpts show how six teachers began teaching a new unit of a lesson (see Example 3).

Example 3: Beginning a textbook unit:

(T-A-1)

1	T:	Good morning, everyone.
2	S:	Good morning, Miss Jiang.
3	T:	Well, today we're going to talk about a new unit, Unit 9, "What Is Intelligence, Anyway". Now, look at the blackboard. What does these two words mean? What is "**intelligence**"? What is "intelligent"? "Intelligence" is, in Chinese, . .?

(T-B-1)

13	T:	Please turn to page 187, note 1. The story first appeared in "New York Post" in 1971 [*This story first appeared in the New York Post. According to this*

		story, a song was written. The Japanese produced a film based on this story and the scene was set in Japan.] First of all, let's come to the vocabulary. The first one, **mysterious**, the adjective form of mystery ……..

(T-C-1)

1	T:	Today, we'll have a new lesson. Lesson four. Please turn to page 66. 66. Now. Please look at new words. New words. First we'll read, read those new words ok! So read after me. [*Let's read aloud the vocabulary first.*] So, please read after me.

(T-D-1)

1	T:	O.K. Good afternoon. Yeah. Another name for **Movement**, hm? [*May Fourth Movement*].

(T-E-1)

1	T:	I hope we'll have some oral report. Anyone? Volunteer? Yes!
2		(A student stands up)

(T-F-1)

1	T:	Good morning, everyone!
2	Ss:	Morning, Mrs. Kang.
3	T:	OK, Now, as usual, we are going to have our free talk first. Whoever already? Please come to the front, ok! Ok, Huang Yutao.

In my classroom data, teachers in Shenzhen and Guangzhou began the lesson with the teaching of vocabulary (Teachers A, B and D) or pronunciation (Teacher C). Teachers E and F in Beijing had a different start. They began with a speaking activity. The shared approach to teaching within the same university or province reflects the practice of homogeneity and collectivity in teaching and uniformity in lesson preparation mentioned by Ng and Tang (1997). The change from the usual practice in the Beijing classrooms reflects an awareness of the fact that speaking has gained importance. Beijing is the capital city and is more responsive to changes and innovations. The change of emphasis may be a response to learners' requests for more speaking practice (Tang and Ng 2002) or a response to the social demand for more competent English speakers (Ma 2000). Since the College English textbooks do not provide task-types relating to speaking, teachers have to create opportunities for speaking themselves. However, the speaking activity in Teacher E's and Teacher F's classes remained a one-way delivery of prepared script. It did not involve any interaction and spontaneous exchanges as in a real communicative environment.

Almost all lessons recorded tended to end with consolidatory translation activities, which we might regard as "comprehension tasks" rather than "generation tasks". According to Griffin (1992), a "comprehension" task involves the production of an L1 item in response to an L2 cue, whereas a "generation" task elicits the production of an L2 item in response to an L1 cue. As pointed out by Stoddard (1929 cited in Griffin 1992), recall for comprehension is twice as easy as recall for generation, as

the task type does not require any active processing of the target language. Example 4 below illustrates a typical classroom translation task.

Example 4: (T-B-2)

105	S:	Number 14. The girl smiled **brightly**, as if she were free from all life's troubles. [*The girl smiled brightly, as if she were free from all life's troubles.*]
106	T:	Very good. Good translation.

The teaching of vocabulary is of major concern to most English teachers in China. First of all, there is a large quantity of words to be covered within an assigned class time. Second, the vocabulary items prescribed by the syllabus will be assessed in the mandatory national examination. Last but not least, even though the prescribed vocabulary items are taught, learners "learn and forget". As memorization is perceived as an important and effective learning strategy, teachers at all levels are desperately looking for ways to help learners memorize more and longer.

Although there are a wide variety of methods that could possibly be adopted, teachers rely heavily on L1. Knowledge of the L1 equivalent is regarded as proof of knowledge of the L2 word. After providing the L1 translation or eliciting it from the class, the teacher will proceed to the next new word (see Example 5).

Example 5: (T-A-2)

169	T:	[*Here are two new words – new words to be learnt*], right?
		[*"devise"*], **devise**, [*and also "evaluate"*].
170	S:	**Evaluate**.

This method has the advantage of being quick and efficient when teachers are facing a heavy teaching schedule. The positive impact of L1 translation on short-term and long-term retention is affirmed (Zhang 1997, Laufer and Shmueli 1997, Elliot and Tao 1998). As Yang (1997) observed, the widespread practice of using conscious word translation strategies has enabled Chinese learners to develop word translation skills much more rapidly than pronunciation skills or discourse knowledge. In the Chinese classroom, L1 is not only used to explain new words, it is also the language for giving instruction and communicating with learners.

5.1.2 The teaching of planned and unplanned words

So far, the optimum number of vocabulary items to be taught in a single lesson has not yet been decided. Gairns and Redman (1986: 66) have suggested eight to twelve productive new vocabulary items per sixty-minute lesson. In China explicit vocabulary teaching is the usual practice and the transfer of new words is primarily done through textbooks. The rate of new words appearing in the textbook and the amount of recycling of words throughout the language syllabus are therefore very important factors, although decisions about these matters are usually made by the textbook writer rather than the teacher.

My data revealed that a total of 639 words were glossed in these six units and were therefore expected to be taught in 1,360 minutes (Table 10). In other words, the textbook writers expected teachers to teach approximately 2.13 words in every minute of lesson time.

Table 10: Recording information and the proportion of explicitly treated glossed words

	Recording time in minutes	**Unit**	**Number of glossed words in the Unit**	**Number of explicitly treated glossed words**
Teacher A	200	Bk. 2 Unit 9	110	46 (42%)
Teacher B	200	Bk. 1 Unit 10	96	39 (41%)
Teacher C	240	Bk. 2, Unit 4	105	54 (51%)
Teacher D	240	Bk. 4, Unit 7	107	88 (81%)
Teacher E	240	Bk. 3, Unit 1	88	15 (17%)
Teacher F	240	Bk. 2, Unit 10	133	10 (7%)
Total	**1,360**	/	**639**	**251 (39%)**

In reality, however, the six teachers taught less than 40% of the glossed words listed in the textbooks (Table 10). Given that the IR textbooks only cover 81% of the syllabus word list (see Chapter Four, Section 4.7), the low percentage of explicitly treated glossed words suggests that only 32% of the words from the syllabus word list were being introduced in the class. It would appear that the vocabulary teaching

requirement prescribed in the syllabus was not being fulfilled at the textbook level. As a result the teachers were not able to adequately prepare the learners for the national College English Test (CET).

It is not clear how teachers chose the words to be taught in class, and whether their decisions were based on a consideration of the learners' language level, the importance of the words, the amount of class time, or the teacher's experience of past examinations. All of the planned words that were taught in my data were printed in bold in the students' book.

Teacher D taught the highest percentage of planned words (Table 11). Most of the teachers could not even cover half of the expected quantity. Teacher E and Teacher F, who were teaching in a key university in the capital Beijing, taught the lowest percentage of planned words.

Table 11: Proportion of treated and untreated planned words

	T-A		**T-B**		**T-C**		**T-D**		**T-E**		**T-F**	
Number of treated planned words	46	42 %	39	41 %	54	51 %	88	81 %	15	17 %	10	7%
Number of untreated planned words	64	58 %	57	59 %	51	49 %	20	19 %	73	83 %	123	93 %
Total number of words glossed in the unit	110	100 %	96	100 %	105	100 %	108	100 %	88	100 %	133	100 %

The difference in percentage could suggest a regional variation in the level of the learners and the beliefs of teachers. As seen in Section 5.1.1, the focus of teaching was sometimes made explicit at the beginning of the lesson. Teachers A and B in Shenzhen started with the text. While going through the sentences, new words were explained. Teachers C and D started their lessons by introducing the vocabulary items of the unit. They believed that their learners had a rather low standard of English, and that it would be impossible to teach the text if learners did not know the vocabulary. That explains why teachers in Guangzhou taught the most words in class. Teachers E and F began the lesson with oral presentations from the learners. As they believed that these learners, who had passed the competitive national matriculation examination and had been selected to the key university in the capital, had a high level of English, they shifted their teaching approach and put less emphasis on vocabulary learning.

There seems to exist some co-ordination among teachers in the same university on the teaching focus, and it seems that this is directly related to the level of the learners and their perception of College English teaching. The differences in vocabulary focus reveal a hierarchical pattern. The key university with better English learners taught fewer new words, while the non-key university with a lower standard of English taught more new words.

The six teachers taught altogether 528 words, planned and unplanned, in twenty-four lessons (Table 12 below). Of all these words, 252 (47%) were planned (i.e. glossed

and indicated as important in the Intensive Reading textbooks). While teaching these words, the teachers simultaneously introduced 276 (53%) other new words. In other words, a new word was introduced about every 2.6 minutes. This rate of introducing new words coincides with the findings of a previous study of College English teaching (Tang 2001a). The rate of vocabulary teaching was slower than the IR textbooks expect (approximately one new word in 1.9 minutes) but much quicker than the College English syllabus requires (approximately one C(I) word in 6.7 minutes). The large number of taught words is enforced by the vocabulary requirement in the national syllabus, explained in Chapter Four, as well as the vocabulary requirement in the textbooks.

Table 12: Proportion of explicitly treated planned and unplanned words

	T-A		T-B		T-C		T-D		T-E		T-F	
Number of treated planned words	46	49 %	39	42 %	54	76 %	88	44 %	15	31 %	10	40 %
Number of treated unplanned words	48	51 %	54	58 %	17	24 %	109	56 %	33	69 %	15	60 %
Total number of explicitly treated words	94	100 %	93	100 %	71	100 %	197	100 %	48	100 %	25	100 %

* The full list of planned and unplanned words is attached in Appendix 6..

The teachers were very efficient in their teaching of planned and unplanned words. However, some of the explicitly treated words looked familiar and seemed to have

appeared in the JSS and SSS. So, I used the WordSmith Tools 3.0 to compare the list of explicitly treated planned and unplanned words with the JSS and SSS. 20% of the 528 explicitly treated words were in JSS and SSS and should already have been acquired at secondary schools. This raises the question of how these known words should be treated and whether any indication is given to the teachers about them.

5.1.3 The treatment of explicitly taught words – planned and unplanned

Among the six teachers, PMI was the most favoured treatment type (Table 13). The results recorded in Table 13 are consistent with those of Tang and Nesi (forthcoming) who reported on vocabulary instruction patterns in Chinese secondary school classrooms.

5.1.3.1 PMI

PMI is a teacher-dominated delivery pattern which gives the teacher full control of the length and depth of the input and the quality and quantity of the vocabulary items. This delivery pattern reinforces the teacher's authority. When the teacher tells learners the meaning of a word, it indicates his or her "expert-power".

Textbook writers' decision about vocabulary presentation could also affect teaching as many teachers see the textbook as the syllabus starting point and the vertebral column of much teaching (Rixon 1999). The simple L1 translation and the definitional meanings provided for the glossed words in the textbooks possibly encouraged the heavy use of PMI.

Table 13: Overview of the input/output types of treatment

	UMI	PMI	IMI	MO	UMO
T-A	7	78	19	0	48
T-B	0	103	1	0	63
T-C	59	35	3	0	0
T-D	90	168	11	0	254
T-E	2	49	5	0	2
T-F	0	24	4	0	5
Total	**158**	**457**	**43**	**0**	**372**

* The categorization of input/output types of explicitly treated words is attached in Appendix 7.

In Ellis and his co-researchers' experiments, PMI refers to definitional explanation. In my data, teachers used a variety of explanation types.

The teachers gave concise explanations that involved L1 translation, synonyms or antonyms (Example 6). As the planned words were all glossed in the textbooks, learners in fact already knew their meaning. Some of the teachers mentioned in the informal interview that providing or getting the L1 translation, synonyms or antonyms was a sufficient and efficient way of checking learners' understanding of the word in limited class time and highlighting the importance of learning these words. Some said that they would choose this vocabulary teaching method when they

found that the learners were poor at listening. In this case, they would use less English in terms of quantity and frequency.

Example 6: PMI

L1 translation (T-E-2):

75	T:	**Mood** [*means "mood". Her mood is like the sky of Spring, which changes always.*] Sentence Three. We spent a very enjoyable evening talking about old times. **Enjoyable**, [*enjoyable*]. It is absolutely wrong to think that natural resources like aluminum and petroleum are not exhaustible. **Exhaustible**, [*exhaustible. .....*]

There were cases when teachers chose to elaborate on the PMI pattern (see Example 7) by providing examples and word associations. The extent of elaboration should not be overlooked. In these cases, learners were provided with a wider picture of the word meaning. In particular, the richer explanation made the meaning clearer. Unfortunately no opportunities arose for learners to develop active processing and to demonstrate to the teacher that they had acquired word knowledge. The teaching process was regarded as complete when the learners successfully wrote down the explanation in their book (see photographs in Appendix 10).

Example 7: PMI

Definition with extended elaboration (T-E-2):

64	T:	I wanted to … very good **solicitor**". Lawyer actually is a general term, [*It is a general term.*] "Solicitor" is a lawyer who gives advice, appeals and prepare the cases for a barrister to argue in the hall. [*He is a junior lawyer.*] Barrister is a lawyer who has the right to speak and argue in the court. [*This is called court lawyer.*] If a person gets into trouble with the police, he will probably ask a solicitor to help prepare his defense and its offence is to be heard in the magistrates' court, he can ask a solicitor to appeal for him and argue his case. If the case goes to the higher court, the solicitor still advises him but he must get a barrister to appeal for him. Catch my meaning?

One might note that teacher talk is always identified as caretaker's or baby talk. Teachers tend to modify their speech to aid comprehension. Some simplify the vocabulary or syntax and some offer redundant information through repetition, paraphrasing or slower speech. Nunan (1991: 191) suggested that elaborated modifications have a more significant effect on L2 comprehension than linguistic simplifications.

5.1.3.2 UMO

UMO was also a frequent output type at university level, particularly in Teacher D's class. This suggested signs of learners' involvement and participation in the learning process. At least they had opportunities to speak in class. The output task types were not the substitution drills and spelling practices observed at secondary schools (Tang and Nesi, forthcoming). In fact, there is only one incidence of spelling practice in my data (see Example 8). It seems that at this level far less emphasis is placed on productive knowledge of the written form of words.

Example 8: PMI and UMO

Spelling (T-D-2):

36	T:	Next one, **marvel**. That's what I say just now, marvelous, wonderful, right? **Marvelous**, how to spell marvelous?
37	Ss:	M-a-r-v-e-l-o-u-s.

The UMO treatment at university included eliciting L1 equivalents, synonyms, antonyms, spellings, and sentence translations from the learners with no modification from the teacher. Example 9 below shows the unmodified output, with learners giving the L1 equivalents and synonyms of the new words.

Example 9: UMO

L1 translation and synonyms (T-A-1):

3	T:	Well, today we're going to talk about a new unit, Unit 9, "What is "**intelligence**"? Anyway, now, look at the blackboard. What does these two words mean? What is "intelligence"? What is "intelligent"? "Intelligence" is, in Chinese, . . .?
4	Ss:	[*intelligence*]
	T:	[*intelligence*] O.K. "intelligence" is [*intelligence*] And what about this word "intelligent"? It means. . .? Give me other words to describe. . . an "intelligent person" means a . . .?
5	Ss:	Wise.
6	T:	Wise.
7	S:	Clever, bright.
8	T:	Clever, bright. Any more?
9	S:	Smart.

The UMO in Teacher D's class is particularly high as there were lots of pronunciation drills (Example 10). In the Chinese classroom, if the pronunciation drill is done at the beginning of a unit it is always accompanied by teacher's input, and is therefore classed as UMI. However, pronunciation practice at the end of the lesson is regarded as consolidation work and revision; I have classed it as UMO because no teacher's input is provided.

Example 10: UMO

Drills and Practice: (T-D-1)

646	T:	Yes. **Apartment**?
647	Ss:	[*apartment*]
648	T:	**Latin**?
649	Ss:	[*Latin*]
650	T:	So let's read the words again.
651	T:	Apartment one two begin.
652	Ss:	Apartment.
653	T:	Once, once, once. Apartment, Latin.
654	Ss:	**Apartment**, **Latin,** quarter, overlook, presently, chat, means, modest, attractive, charming, passion, impression, talkative, attentive, startle, fare, reassure, generous, generous, nowadays, menu, chop, overload, digestion, hospitable.

Another form of UMO is the sentence translation task from L1 to L2 or from L2 to L1 (Example 11). The "comprehension task" of translating sentences from L2 to L1 is more common than the "generation task" of translating sentences from L1 to L2, as this is one of the CET examination formats.

Example 11: PMI & UMO

Translation task (T-C-1):

142	T:	Let's look at "**attach**" [*this word has different function ... first,*] attach something to something [*means "add", "attach", this is the first meaning*] The first meaning [*usually uses it for business correspondence..... for example: a sample is attached to this letter.*] a sample attached to a letter. [*translated as: a sample is attached to this letter.*] Ok. [*Another fixed function, usually we said: "Attached please find...Please check.*] "Attached… you'll find. [*This is a convention in the business correspondence.*] The second meaning, "be attached to" [*which is*] phrase.[*meaning your feeling is bound to ... usually we interpreted it as "admire", "adore".*] for example: [*She is deeply attached to her brother.*] how to say? [*The first column, the second one*] please.
143	S3:	She is deeply attached to her brother

5.1.3.3 UMI

Although both Western and Chinese linguists take the spoken form as the primary form of the language, the relationships between written forms, pronunciation and meaning are perceived differently by Western and Chinese scholars (Parry 1998). Western speakers treat the written form as a representation of the spoken form of the language as they can associate the sound with the form, at least to a certain extent. However they may still be unsure about the correct orthography when writing,

especially if they speak a language which has incomplete sound-spelling correspondence, such as English. Chinese speakers, on the other hand, are more likely to ask how a word should be pronounced, because the large majority of Chinese characters do not contain any clues to indicate the sound of the words. It is difficult for Chinese speakers to associate the sound with the form. Beliefs about how the L1 is learnt are transferred to learning the foreign language. This is probably the main reason why pronunciation practice and the reading aloud of individual words are common in the Chinese classroom. The teaching of phonological representation matches the findings of study of the mental lexicon of Chinese learners (Gui 1993).

Nevertheless the UMI method of teaching pronunciation was not common in my data. Teacher C and Teacher D provided the most UMI with the teaching of pronunciation (see Example 12). In secondary school it is the usual practice to teach pronunciation at the beginning of the lesson and revise it at the end of each Unit. At university level the use of pronunciation drills depends greatly on the teaching style and the teaching philosophy of the individual teacher. As noted, the teaching of new words in the other classes did not involve the teaching of the aural representation of the words, although this is usually considered as a key factor in learning vocabulary according to the Chinese culture of language learning. In our casual conversation, some teachers pointed out that it is important to teach the aural representation of all planned words, foreseeing the increased emphasis on the speaking component in the syllabus and the greater demand for fluent English speakers in the workplace. But some teachers believed that the pronunciation drills were activities at secondary school level and

were unsuitable for these undergraduates. At university, they should do more 'serious' teaching and a higher level of intellectual work.

Example 12: UMI

Pronunciation (T-C-1):

2	T:	**apply**, apply
3	Ss:	apply, apply

5.1.3.4 IMI

IMI, which involves negotiation of word meaning, is not obvious in most Chinese classrooms. In my study of secondary school teaching (Tang and Nesi, forthcoming), the IMI observed did not contain the kind of interaction described by Ellis in his experimental studies. In the real classrooms, IMI was a controlled interaction between teacher and learners which did not involve spontaneous exchanges or negotiation of meaning. IMI in the university classroom was minimal. The interaction between teacher and learners simply involved checking learners' comprehension and testing learners' memory. The interaction was unilateral, with teachers posing controlled and closed questions (Example 13).

Example 13: IMI

Questioning (T-D-1):

452	T:	So this is means. Next one, franc, franc. Next one, **modest**, not large in quantity, size, value. For example, in China, we usually, when we give somebody present, present, you know **present**, [*gift*], right? We usually say, please accept this modest present. Right? Please accept this modest present from our class, right? If you want to present a ... a ... a present to your teacher, you'll say…
453	T:	[*little*]
454	Ss:	[*present*]
455	T:	[*what? what? and then?*]
456	Ss:	[*not at all*]
457	T:	[*not at all*], so that is modest, modest present, right?

Although there were situations in my data where extended elaboration of word meaning led to free interaction, such situations were very rare. Example 14 below shows how the teaching of "hammer" led to a free interaction with the learners. However, such interaction did not relate to the negotiation of word meaning as the learners already knew the L1 equivalent of "hammer". This example also illustrates several further features of the Chinese classroom. First, we can see that the learners were willing to take part and communicate in the lesson, but that they could only use their L1 because they did not have the appropriate L2 language to talk in class. Although they knew a few thousand words of English, they had never previously had

the opportunity and invitation from the teachers to use these words. Secondly, we can see that when the topic is expanded it allows exposure to more new words and the opportunity to teach unplanned words. When the explanation of "hammer" extended to the singing of EL CONDO PASA, it simultaneously exposed the class to many new words. Thirdly, this shows that if teachers are willing to use the L2 more frequently, and in more varied ways, a more interactive and richer lexical environment can be created.

Example 14: PMI and IMI

(T-A-1)

147	T:	..... "**hammer**", now, "hammer", [*hammer.....hammer. How to say*
148		*"nail"?*]
149	Ss:	Nail.
	T:	Nail. Nai...nail. I learned this word from a song, again. If you can sing that song, you can remember this very, for a very long time. [*It's true. The song is called*] EL CONDOR PASA. [*You must have heard of it.*]
150		(singing" I'd rather be a hammer than a nail. Yes I would..."
151	T&Ss:	(singing together) "... if I could, I surely would,..."
	T:	"hammer", "I'd rather be a hammer than a nail." Means what? The song is talking about what? Freedom, freedom. [*The last line says:*] "Mm---a man gets tied up to the ground ", and he envied the bird, who can fly
152		freely. "hammer", [*We all know the difference between "hammer" and*
153		*"nail", don't we?*]

154	S：	[*One hits, one is being hit.*]
155	T：	[*Hammer can. What is "hammer"? --- It is equivalent to "active", nail*
156		*is being hammered into it.*]
157	S：	[*reverse action!*]
	T：	(laughing) [*reverse action? You shouldn't think of that.*]
	S：	[*It's the truth.*]
158	T：	Basically…[*We are now talking about*] some basic principles。 [*Don't*
159		*think of the other things. The only function is reverse action. It, but the position that the nail goes is decided by the hammer. How it is hammered is also determined by the hammer, right*
	S：	[*Hammer is controlled by us.*]
	T:	[*It's just a*] metaphor .O.K, don't be so serious.

Of all the explicitly treated words in the above examples, *enjoyable, apartment, apply, modest, present* and *hammer* are known words to the learners, i.e. they are included in the JSS and SSS. However, there was no observable difference in handling these known words. It seems likely that the teachers themselves did not know that these words have had already been acquired at secondary school level as there was no information about this in the textbook or teacher's book.

5.1.4 Learner initiated vocabulary teaching

It is rare to find learners asking the teacher questions. Even when the teacher asks "Any other questions?" or "Do you understand?", these are perceived merely as

display questions. No response from the learners is expected. However, in Example 15, a learner asked about the difference between "convey" and "relay", which had previously been taught, and this led to further elaboration from the teacher. The lengthy teacher talk in the target language increased the opportunity for wider lexical exposure.

Example 15: (T-F-2)

82	T:	…….. Ok. Any other questions? Any other questions? Ok. Huang.
83	S:	[*Both*] "convey" [*and*] "relay" [*mean "convey", "pass", and are also transitive verbs, what is the difference?*]
84	T:	Ok. "Relay" [*and*] "convey". Can you tell me any word is in the text? All right. We just stop here and have a break and we'll go on with it next time.
85	T:	All right. Now, let's begin. Just now Huang asked me the question, a question about the difference between the word "**convey**" and word "**relay**", which is in the same sentence, right? Convey, relay, in Chinese they all mean [*convey or pass*], right? But in English they mean differently. The word "convey" means "to make ideas, wills, feelings, etc. known to another person. To make ideas, wills, feelings, etc. known to another person in Chinese means [*express and pass*]. [*What is "convey"?*] [*It's*] idea [*idea*], wills [*is will*], feelings [*is an emotion and feeling*], right? That's the meaning of the word convey. For a sentence, I can't convey my feelings in words. I can't convey my feelings in word means [*I can't convey my feelings in words.*] For a sentence, this sentence should be used

by me now. I'm going to leave you, but I can not convey my feelings in words. Right? Yes, Another example: Please convey my best wishes to your parents. This is something a sentence written usually in a letter. Please convey my best wishes to your parents. [*Please convey my best wishes to your parents*]. Right. And the word "relay" or "relay"?

86	Ss:	Relay
87	T:	"Relay". The stress in on the first syllable. Relay means to repeat something. you have heard. To repeat something you have heard or to broadcast a signal, message or programme on television or radio. To repeat something you have heard or to broadcast signal. Message or programme on television or radio. So the first meaning of the word means [*repeat what you have heard*], right? The second meaning of this word means [*broadcast through television and radio*], Signal [*signal*], message [*some information*] or programme [*programme*], right? So in Chinese means [*relay has the meaning of broadcast, but they are not the same, right? Although when we translate it to Chinese, it has the meaning of "convey and "pass" but it is not the same in English.*]

It is not unusual to find teachers spending as much time teaching a high frequency word as a less frequent one or an academic word. It is also not unusual to find teachers using similar treatments when dealing with different types of words.

5.1.5 The multiple treatments of planned and unplanned words

Lee (1994) examined the effectiveness of the use of a variety of explanation types (multi-type explanations) or a single explanation type (mono-type explanation) in vocabulary teaching, with or without the presence of a text. The study was conducted with secondary school Chinese learners in Hong Kong. The researcher acted as the teacher and selected ten vocabulary items to be taught to four groups of young learners aged 15. They had about nine years of English learning experience in the formal setting. The four groups of subjects received different treatment. The first group was taught with multi-type explanations from a text. The second group was taught with mono-type explanations from the same text. The third group was provided with multi-type explanations without a text. The fourth group received mono-type explanations of words out of context. Results showed that there was no statistical significance between subjects' scores on the use of mono or multi-type explanations. In other words, using a single vocabulary teaching method is no different from using more than one teaching method in explaining the word meaning. Although the subjects who took part in the interview claimed that the presence of text helped them with the guessing of word meaning, their scores in the posttest were statistically insignificant. Lee suggested that direct interaction with learners may help the teacher to decide which method or methods should be used.

In the same study, Lee (ibid) found that the clarity and lucidity of vocabulary explanation, whether multi or mono, was influenced by a number of factors. The discourse data showed that the adopted teaching method, availability of L1

equivalents and abstractness of the vocabulary item affected the effectiveness of vocabulary explanations. Her observation suggested that if learners could have a higher level of involvement and if teachers allowed more redundancy in explanation and more repetition in subsequent lessons, learners would be able to understand and remember better. Also, if the words were less abstract and had L1 equivalents, learning would be less demanding and the learning load would be reduced.

Tang and Nesi (forthcoming) noted that secondary school teachers treated planned vocabulary much more thoroughly and intensively than unplanned vocabulary. They explained the meanings of planned words and made learners practise their spelling and pronunciation, using substitution oral drills. When teaching unplanned words, however, the teachers usually only provided the L1 meaning.

At university, teachers also tended to adopt an intensive treatment when teaching planned words. However, the intensity of the treatment was not as great as was observed at secondary school. The majority of planned words at university were treated with only one or two input/output types (Tables 14a and 14b).

Table 14a: Percentages of the treatment of planned words (total)

	Planned words	**Percentage**
1 type of input/output treatments	115	46%
2 types of input/output treatments	83	33%
3 types of input/output treatments	50	20%
4 types of input/output treatments	3	1%
Total	**251**	**100%**

Table 14b: Percentages of the treatment of planned words (individual teachers)

	T-A		**T-B**		**T-C**		**T-D**		**T-E**		**T-F**		**Total**	
Single treatment														
1 type of input/output treatments	25	54 %	21	54 %	37	68 %	16	18 %	11	73 %	5	50 %	115	100 %
Multiple treatments														
2 types of input/output treatments	18	39 %	18	46 %	15	28 %	24	28 %	4	27 %	4	40 %	83	100 %
3 types of input/output treatments	3	7 %	0	0 %	2	4 %	44	51 %	0	0 %	1	10 %	50	100 %
4 types of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	3	3 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	3	100 %

The following examples show how multiple treatments were realised in the teaching of planned words.

Example 16: PMI and IMI

(T-A-1)

122	T:	"**devise**", "devise" here means " think out, or plan", [*think out, design. "Design" usually we will think of which word?*]
123	Ss:	Design.
124	T:	**Design**. [*but here it means*...],"design" [*usually it refers to …… a writing kind of thing …… for example*] device a set of exams. [*setting exam paper, it can be said as "devising a set of exam"*] "design" can be many other , many other aspects. [*for example*] design dresses, dress designing, or design some constructions. Right? [*architectural type, for example*]. "carpenter", now " **academician**". ……

Example 17: PMI and UMO

(T-F-1)

87	T:	…..Ok, now ,the second word I want to ,to know which is very important is the word "**exhaust**", it is a verb, and it is as a verb in the text, right? [*It is also used as a verb in the text.*] When it is a verb, it means…….

88	S:	Tire out.
89	T:	Tire out, tire out means [*very tired, exhausted*]. OK, [*It's really tired today. I am very tired. I felt very tired today.*] here you can say "what an, what an exhausting day, what an exhausting day", [*I, I am completely exhausted.*] I'm completely exhausted, Yes, use the word exhorts in two ways, one is present participle, the other is past participle, when it's a present participle, that means something ,make you exhausted, when you use the past participle, the participle, that means you feel very exhausted, right? You feel very tired, that's the first meaning as a verb, when it is as a verb, the second meaning means is "use up completely" "use up completely" and often in passive voice, [*usually, it is passive*,] can you make a sentence with the word exhaust when it means "to use up completely" [*use it as this meaning, make a sentence with this word.*] Wangbin.
90	S:	He has exhausted all his money,
91	T:	Yes, he has exhausted all his money given by his father right ? [*spend all his father's money*], yes ,If I say [*I can't bear it anymore.*] do you know how to say, [*I have exhausted my patience.*]
92	S:	I have exhausted my patience.
93	T:	I have exhausted my patience, I think you should better use it in the passive voice, [*usually in passive form*], you can say, here you can say "My patience is exhausted". My patience is exhausted, [*usually in passive form, here is passive. This is better.*] Ok, now what I want to tell you is that the word exhaust can be, is also a noun, [*a noun also*], when it is a noun, it also, yes,

		means what……
94	S:	……In an engine or machine steam …… has done it.
95	T:	Yes.
96	S:	[*exhaust gases*]
97	T:	Yes, Yes, [*"exhaust gases" means, car exhaust*]. How do you say?
98	S:	Car exhaust.
99	T:	Car exhaust, There's a sentence, [*The main cause of air pollution in this city is car exhaust. In other words, car exhaust is the main cause of air pollution in this city.*] How do you say? [*car exhaust, car exhaust*]. How do you say?
100	S:	The main reason of the pollution of this city is exhaust.
101	T:	Is car exhaust, or you can say "car exhaust is the main reason of the, sorry, not of , for the city's air pollution. Car exhaust is the main reason for the city's air pollution, ok, that's all for this word.

In this study, words are counted as unplanned if they are taught in the lesson but are not glossed in the Unit. Unplanned words may, however, be syllabus-designated words or words that are glossed in other Units of the textbook series. All of the unplanned words recorded in the corpus were treated during the course of teaching planned words.

As with planned words, the six teachers used one to two input/output types to treat unplanned words (Tables 15a and 15b). Since class time was limited and there were a large number of target words to be taught before the national examination, the

majority of the non syllabus-designated words tended to be dealt with only briefly. This suggests that there was a difference of emphasis. Most unplanned words were dealt with more briefly than planned words. A brief explanation solved the lexical problems of the learners while at the same time expanding their lexical inventory.

Table 15a: Percentages of the treatment of unplanned words (total)

	Unplanned words	**Percentage**
1 type of input/output treatments	210	76%
2 types of input/output treatments	57	21%
3 types of input/output treatments	9	3%
4 types of input/output treatments	0	0%
Total	**276**	**100%**

Table 15b: Percentages of the treatment of unplanned words (individual teachers)

	T-A		T-B		T-C		T-D		T-E		T-F		Total	
Single treatment														
1 type of input/output treatments	29	62 %	39	72 %	13	76 %	85	77 %	31	94 %	13	87 %	210	100 %
Multiple treatments														
2 types of input/output treatments	16	34 %	15	28 %	3	18 %	19	17 %	2	6 %	2	13 %	57	100 %
3 types of input/output treatments	2	4 %	0	0 %	1	6 %	6	6 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	9	100 %
4 types of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	100 %

Examples of the teaching of unplanned words are given below (Example 18 to Example 21). No matter what the teachers were teaching – confusing words, collocations, prefixes, synonyms, antonyms, roots or suffixes, the main focus was always on the teaching of planned words. Other words were introduced incidentally.

Example 18: The teaching of "sign" – an unplanned word (T-D-2)

38	T:	OK, next one, **sigh**. You know sigh, sigh? You know **sign**?
39	S:	[*sigh*].
40	T:	Sign, [*sign*]; sigh, [*sigh*]. Remember? For example, listen, listen, listen carefully. Er, she put down the phone sighed and shook her head sadly. [Ke xia ming], she put down the phone sighed and shook her head sadly.
41	S:	[*put down the phone*].

Example 19: The teaching of "sore" – an unplanned word (T-D-2)

56	T:	OK, that's right. **Throat**. That's OK, throat. [*Good. We say sore throat is*] **sore** throat. Remember sore? S-o-r-e, sore throat, remember? S-o-r-e. [*You have learnt it in secondary school*], right?
57	S:	Sore throat.
58	T:	I have a sore throat, right?

Example 20: The teaching of "commit-" and "counter-" – unplanned words (T-E-1)

44	T:	"**Commit**", do something bad or unlawful. [*make mistakes, how to say?*]
45	Ss:	Commit mistakes.
46	T:	**Commit mistakes**. [*commit crime*], **commit crime**.[*commit suicide*] , **commit suicide**, [*murder*], **commit murder**. And the next word is "**counterculture**", [*anti-culture*]. The word is created in 1960s for the attitude and life style of many young people who rejected conventional social values and demanded more personal freedom. The counterculture first rose in the U.S. during the 1960s.And soon spread to Britain, France and other Western countries. The young people dissatisfied with the existing states of affairs in this society. Yet they were not able to find more constructive way of struggling against the existing states of affairs in their society. They indulged themselves in sex, drugs, alcohol and rock music, and took great pride in wearing long hair and unusual clothes and they took up anything that was unconventional. "Counterculture" declined in the late 1970s.Actually,the movie, Forrest Gump. This movie just talks about many

historic things that happened in American history. Jenny belongs to a number of countercultures. [*We still remembered that she always carried her guitar, followed others like a hippie.*] And "**counter-**",what's the meaning of this prefix? It means in opposition to. For example, **counteract**, [*counteract*]. The second meaning is in return. For example , **counterattack**, [*counterattack, counterattack*]. And also, it means corresponding, [*corresponding*]. **Counterpart**, [*corresponding to a person, a thing or another*]. So I will use some words. Guess the meaning. **Counterclockwise**, [*anti-clockwise*], **Clockwise**, [*clockwise*]. **Counterargument** , [*counterargument, arguing a point. How to say "countermeasure"? anti-measure?*] **Countermeasure. Counteroffer**, [*counteroffer*]. [*The seller and the buyer counteroffer*]. **Countercharge**, [*counter-complain*]. OK. The next word "**confirm**".

Example 21: PMI and UMO

The teaching of "-scribe" – an unplanned word (T-E-1)

32	T:	Circumscribe. **Scribe**? You know this? It means writing. **Circumscribe**, writing around. What does that mean?
33	Ss:	[*restriction.*]

A closer look at the contexts in which the unplanned words are taught indicates that these words tend to be pre-determined by the teachers in their lesson preparation. Moreover, when teachers decide in advance which unplanned words they will teach

in class, they also decide on number and the type of unplanned words they will teach. Exposure to unplanned words could increase if teachers used the target language in delivery and allowed more teacher-learner interaction, as shown previously in Example 14. While explaining in the target language, other words are introduced to expand learners' vocabulary inventory. Also, if teachers could use more illustrative examples related to learners' experience and daily life, words from varied topics could be introduced.

5.1.6 Recycling of planned and unplanned words

Researchers have not reached a consensus regarding the number of exposures necessary for successful vocabulary acquisition, Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) claim, however, that the likelihood of truly knowing a word after a single encounter is only about ten to fifteen percent. In the light of this claim it seems to be important that learners encounter new words on more than one occasion. In my data, input/output treatments for taught words were traced across the entire week of lessons. Each treatment was counted and separately listed. (see Appendix 7 for the categorization of input/output types of explicitly treated words.)

As shown in Table 16 and Table 17, the majority of the explicitly taught words – planned and unplanned, did not receive a cyclical treatment. Most of the explicitly taught words were treated only once in the whole week of teaching.

Table 16: Occurrence of planned words in the one-week lessons

	T-A		T-B		T-C		T-D		T-E		T-F		Total	
Single occurrence														
1 occurrence of input/output treatments	44	96 %	21	54 %	48	91 %	14	16 %	14	93 %	9	90 %	150	100 %
Multiple treatments														
2 occurrences of input/output treatments	2	4 %	6	15 %	5	9 %	12	14 %	1	7 %	1	10 %	27	100 %
3 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	6	15 %	0	0 %	6	7 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	12	100 %
4 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	2	5 %	0	0 %	17	19.5 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	19	100 %
5 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	2	5 %	0	0 %	17	19.5 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	19	100 %
6 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	1	3 %	0	0 %	7	8 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	8	100 %
more than 6 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	1	3 %	0	0 %	14	16 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	15	100 %

Table 17: Occurrence of unplanned words in the one-week lessons

	T-A		T-B		T-C		T-D		T-E		T-F		Total	
Single occurrence														
1 occurrence of input/output treatments	47	100 %	53	98 %	17	100 %	97	88 %	30	91 %	15	100 %	259	100 %
Multiple treatments														
2 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	1	2%	0	0 %	8	7 %	3	9 %	0	0%	12	100 %
3 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	2	2 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	2	100 %
4 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	100 %
5 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	1	1 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	1	100 %
6 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	2	2 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	2	100 %
more than 6 occurrences of input/output treatments	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0%	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	100 %

The following examples show how some words were recycled at different stages of the lessons. Examples 22 and 23 show the recycling process and the recurrence of the planned vocabulary items. In Example 22, the consolidation was a comprehension task which required learners to respond to L2 with L1. The checking of learners' memory of word meaning suggests the practice of rote learning. It has to be noted that the rote learning activity is facilitated and in a way promoted by the teacher.

Example 22: (planned)

The teaching of "apartment" and "Latin" (T-D-1)

UMI at introduction stage

23	T:	**Apartment**
24	Ss:	Apartment
25	T:	Apartment
26	Ss:	Apartment
27	T:	**Latin**
28	Ss:	Latin
29	T:	Latin
30	Ss:	Latin

UMO at presentation stage

365	T:	OK. So look at me first. Look at me. You know **apartment**, apartment?
366	Ss:	[*apartment*].

PMI at presentation stage

396	T:	**Latin**, [*Latin*].

UMO at practice stage

548	T:	**Apartment,** one, two, three.
549	Ss:	Apartment, apartment
550	Ss:	Latin, Latin

UMO at consolidation stage

646	T:	Yes. **Apartment**?
647	Ss:	[*apartment*].
648	T:	**Latin**?
649	Ss:	[*Latin.*]
650	T:	So let's read the words again.
651	T:	Apartment, one, two, begin.
652	Ss:	Apartment.
653	T:	Once, once, once. Apartment, Latin.

In Example 23, the word "chat" is not a syllabus-designated word but "chatter" is. In teaching the word "chat", the teacher recycled it six times in the one-week lesson. Repetition allows learners to be familiar with the lexical items, making them available for productive use in encoding tasks.

Example 23:

The teaching of "chat" (T-D-1, 2)

[Lesson 1 – first hour]

UMI at introduction stage

43	T:	**chat**
44	Ss:	Chat
45	T:	Chat
46	Ss:	Chat

PMI at presentation stage

421	T:	Next one, **chat**, chat. I think maybe you are familiar with this word---chat, especially in nettalk. You know, right? Chat, right? Right?
422	T:	But chat is different from conversation, right? You know, chat is informal, informal, right? Yes. An informal conversation. Now for example, we will have a longer chat next time we meet. We will have a longer chat next time we meet. We will have a longer chat next time we meet. We will have a longer chat next time we meet. What means?
423	Ss&T:	[*We will have a longer chat next time we meet.*]
424	T:	[*We will have a longer chat next time we meet.*], right?

UMO at practice stage

554	Ss:	**Chat**, chat.

UMO at closing stage

654	Ss:	Apartment, Latin, quarter, overlook, presently, **chat**, means, modest, attractive, charming, passion, impression, talkative, attentive, startle, fare, reassure, generous, generous, nowadays, menu, chop, overload, digestion, hospitable.

[Lesson 1 – second hour]

UMO at introduction stage – revision

1	Ss:	Overlook, overlook; presently, presently; **chat, chat**; means, means; modest, modest; attractive, attractive; charming, charming; passion, passion; impression, impression; talkative, talkative; inclined, inclined; attentive, attentive; startle, startle; fare, fare; reassure, reassure; generously, generously; generous, generous; nowadays, nowadays; menu, menu; chop, chop; overload, overload; digestion, digestion; hospitable, hospitable.

[Lesson 2]

UMO at introduction stage – revision

2	Ss:	Apartment, apartment; Latin, Latin; Quarter, quarter; overlook, overlook; presently, presently; **chat, chat**; means, means; modest, modest; attractive,

attractive; charming, charming; passion, passion; impression, impression; talkative, talkative; startle, startle; Inclined, inclined; Attentive, attentive; Fare, fare; Reassure, reassure; Generously, generously; generous, generous; nowadays, nowadays; menu, menu; chop, chop; overload, overload; digestion, digestion; hospitable, hospitable; amicable, amicable; flash, flash; fancy, fancy; trifle, trifle; forbid, forbid; literature, literature; bite, bite; water, water; might, might; will, will; assure, assure; tender, tender; marvel, marvel; sigh, sigh; ruin, ruin; panic, panic; oblige, oblige; dramatic, dramatic; pick, pick;` wicked, wicked; thrust, thrust; throat, throat; mouthful, mouthful; drama, drama; peach, peach; blush, blush; innocent, innocent; landscape, landscape; lord, lord; snack, snack; instant, instant; mean, mean;

IMI at consolidation stage – cloze exercise

141	T:	Good, soon, soon. I received from her another letter saying that she was passing through Paris and would like to have a **chat**---a chat?
142	S:	talk
143	T:	Chat?
144	S:	talk, conversation.
145	T:	Conversation, informal conversation, right? …..

Unplanned

Example 24 shows how unplanned words were recycled in the lessons during the course of one week. The word "board" is not glossed in the textbook. It is, however, a syllabus-designated word and is therefore considered important for the examination. Although it is an unplanned word in this lesson, the teacher placed a lot of emphasis on it. Multiple treatment and multiple turns were observed.

Example 24: (unplanned)

Teaching of "board" (T-B-1, 2)

[Lesson 1]

UMO, PMI and IMI at presentation stage

141	T:	Here, what does **board** mean?
142	Ss:	get on.
143	T:	Get on. [G*et on the car. Get on the boat. Get on the plane.*]
144	T:	Board [*can be used as noun. For example:*] "on board" what's meaning?
145	Ss:	[*on the deck*]
146	T:	[*on the boat or on the plane but don't mix up with*] "**abroad**". "Board" [*originally means "board". There is another*] American slang "welcome aboard"
147	Ss:	[*welcome to another country*]

[Lesson 2]

UMO at consolidation stage

189	S:	The whistle is blowing. Let's board the train now. [*The whistle is blowing. Let's board the train now.*]
190	T:	[*Here*] **board**, what's the part of the speech?
191	S:	[*noun*]

As noted, the cyclic treatment of the new words, planned and unplanned, was very much influenced by the structure of the lesson. All explicitly treated words which occurred in more than one turn were treated according to a clear presentation-practice-consolidation structure. Lessons were not usually very clearly staged, however, except by Teacher D. This differs from Tang and Nesi's observaton of the controlled structure of a lessons at secondary school. The difference in university and secondary school lesson organization may be accounted for by differences of focus in the two Teacher's books. A clear three-stage structure is outlined in every Chapter of the Teacher's book for secondary school teachers. However, this teaching procedure is not mentioned at all in the College English Teacher's book. The focus of the College English Teacher's book is on helping the teachers to understand background information relating to the reading texts, and preparing vocabulary explanations.

With the exception of Teacher E and Teacher F, the first lesson in my data usually began with the introduction of the text or of certain vocabulary items. The delivery style of the lesson was teacher-centred throughout. Since there was a tight teaching

schedule that they had to finish one whole Unit within four hours, teachers usually taught as many vocabulary items as they could in the first two-hour lesson while they explained the passage at the same time, and the remaining vocabulary would be taken care of in the second two-hour lesson on the other day. The last part of the second lesson was normally spent checking answers to the exercises. Unlike the three-stage mode which allows cyclic treatment of new words, this method of presenting and checking exercises minimized the chance of word recycling.

5.2 Lexical richness in the classroom

Vocabulary input in the classroom is not restricted to explicit vocabulary teaching. Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997) explored the lexical environment of ESL/EFL learners whose exposure to the target language depended solely on classroom input. The study drew attention to the role of extensive exposure in the acquisition of new words in an ESL/EFL environment where most or almost all English words are learnt in the classrooms So far, Meara et al.'s study has been the sole research publication in this area.

Their study assumed that the existence of more unusual words in the teachers' speech would imply a richer lexical environment. The more times the teacher uses unusual words, the more variety there is in his/her language. However, it is possible that in a lesson of one or two hours, a teacher might use the same unusual word(s) over and over again. This is a possibility that was not considered in Meara et al's study but cannot be excluded. There is a need to look at the number of different words in the

teacher talk, as well as the number of frequent and infrequent words. Also, if a lot of unusual words are found, this may simply suggest that the lexical environment is beyond the learners' linguistic and cognitive competence.

So what is the importance of providing lexical richness in the classroom? I tend to think that the more even the spread across different frequency levels, and the higher the proportion of types against tokens, the more favourable the classroom as a lexical environment will be.

In Meara et al's work, the counting of lemmas is problematic. Since derived forms can be very different from base forms in terms of orthography and pronunciation, they should be introduced separately. In the case of Chinese learners of English, derived forms and even inflected forms are new concepts as the Chinese language does not have these. It cannot be assumed that knowing the base form will lead to automatic acquisition of the derived or inflected form. Thus, in measuring the variety of lexis in teacher talk, it is necessary to count all single words as individual entries.

5.2.1 Teacher talk as a lexical source

Teacher talk plays an important role in classroom organization and management, giving feedback and asking questions. It is also crucial in second language acquisition. It is "probably the major source of comprehensible target language input that the learner is likely to receive" (Nunan 1990: 187). When no or minimal

interaction is allowed in the class, the number of words and the types of words from teachers will have a significant impact on vocabulary acquisition.

There is no question about the dominance of teacher talk in the Chinese classroom. Li (1999) pointed out that the large amount of teacher talk in Chinese classrooms matched the expectations of teachers, learners, schools and even parents. This is also the outcome of traditional teaching practice, large class sizes, the low linguistic competence of the learners, and the national syllabus. The national curriculum, to a great extent, encourages teacher-centredness as it is the safest way of complying with the education policy. This in turn leads to a large amount of teacher talk.

In a communicative classroom, the focus of teacher talk is on communication, whether or not it successfully simulates authentic communication outside the classroom. It is thought that 'good' teacher talks less as too much teacher talk time (TTT) will deny learners opportunities to speak (Cullen 1998). The importance of teacher talk in a communicative classroom rests on its effectiveness and ability to facilitate learning and promote interaction.

In a traditional classroom, the focus of teacher talk is on the transmission of knowledge. In China, both the quantity and quality of teacher talk are valuable to learners as:

a) it provides a potentially valuable source for comprehensible input which is essential for language acquisition (Krashen 1981).

b) it is unrealistic to reduce TTT as it is culturally inappropriate, where the classrooms are preoccupied with the traditional role of a teacher as knowledge-transmitter.

c) in an "input-poor" environment where the teacher is the principal source of lexical input, questions, nomination of topics, and interaction patterns initiated or shaped by the teacher affect exposure to the language.

Elley (1989) conducted an experiment with children aged seven to eight concerning incidental vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. Elley found that these children, despite their varied ability, gained 15% of the vocabulary without teacher explanation and 40% with teacher explanation. The highest gains were nouns and there was less improvement with adjectives and verbs. This finding accords with belief about the imageability of words in dual-code theory. The follow-up tests showed that the incidental vocabulary learning was relatively permanent. Elley identified three features that best predicted successful incidental vocabulary acquisition. They were the frequency of the word in the text, the depiction of the words in illustration and the amount of redundancy in the surrounding context. His study threw light on incidental vocabulary acquisition from oral input, indicating that contextual variables and extent of elaboration are critical in determining whether teachers can produce effective language for incidental acquisition.

Lado (1977:184), commenting on West's *A General Service List of English Words*, pointed out that "it is also important to note that whenever these vocabularies have

been taught in their entirety, the learners learn countless additional words and lexical units not found in the list". Thus, while learning the explicitly treated planned and unplanned words, learners are exposed to other words implicitly. In other words, while teachers are teaching the planned and unplanned words, they are at the same time creating a lexical environment for learners to "pick up" other words through the oral input.

In this section, teacher talk will be analyzed to see the extent to which learners could benefit from oral input, and the extent to which it provided a lexically rich environment for acquisition. The focus rested on the variety and the frequency level of the teacher input.

5.2.2 Procedures

The teacher talk was extracted from the lesson transcription and examined using the measure of lexical variation (LV) adopted by Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997) and Brown, Sagers and LaPorte (1999) to assess the lexical richness of teacher talk. LV is the type-token ratio, and was chosen as an indicator of lexical richness because the calculation is straightforward, although it requires a clear definition of the terms "type" and "token":

$$LV = \frac{\text{no. of types x 100}}{\text{no. of tokens}}$$

In this study, 'types' were defined as all the different words in the corpus, and 'tokens' as the total number of running words. 'Type' was taken to include both the base form and all its derivations, despite any differences in orthography and pronunciation. The calculation was prepared with the aid of the WordSmith Tools 3.0 (Scott 1998). Because the validity of the LV measure can be affected by differences in text length (Richards 1985; Laufer and Nation 1995), a calculation based on the first 1,500 words of the teacher talk was also made to show more reliable and comparable LV scores.

The LV ratio alone does not give a full picture of lexical richness, however, as this requires additional consideration of word type frequency levels. Following Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997), I matched the wordlists derived from each lesson transcript against frequency lists available in the computer program *VocabProfile* (VP) (Nation 1986). The first list (VP1) includes the most frequent 1,000 words of English; the second (VP2) includes the second 1,000 most frequent words, and the third (VP3) includes words not in the first 2,000 words of English, but frequent in upper secondary school and university texts from a wide range of subjects. All three lists include the base forms of words and derived forms. In this study, contractions such as "I'm", "how's" and "can't" were added to VP1 together with expressions commonly produced by Chinese speakers, such as "yeh", "ha", and "ah". (see Appendix 8 for words added toVP1)

5.2.3 Variety of the lexical input

Table 18 below shows that the LV ratio of the six teachers varied greatly. Although the ratio rose in some individual lessons, this only reflected the instability of the ratio due to size of the corpus. The relatively low LV ratio implies that the teacher talk was not lexically rich. In other words, the fact that the foreign language learners in China are exposed to an "input-poor" environment is further substantiated. Learners not only have scarce exposure to the L2 outside classroom, they also have limited extensive exposure to the target language inside the classroom as well

Table 18: Lexical Variation of individual teacher

Teachers	Tokens	Types	LV ratio
T-A	4,200	746	17.76
T-A	2,173	594	27.34
	6,373	**1,046**	**16.41%**
T-B	3,143	738	23.48
T-B	1,359	498	36.64
	4,502	**964**	**21.41%**
T-C	938	301	32.09
T-C	910	316	34.73
	1,848	**509**	**27.54%**
T-D	5,368	744	17.86
T-D	6,486	850	13.11
	11,854	**1,187**	**10.01%**
T-E	2,980	820	27.52
T-E	1,479	578	39.08
	7,689	**1,020**	**13.27%**
T-F	3,733	637	17.06
T-F	3,956	694	17.54
	6,373	**1,046**	**16.41%**

As mentioned, the difference in the length of the teacher talk or quantity of words in lessons has significant impact on the LV ratio. In order to validate the LV ratio and assure the reliability of the study, the first 1,500 words from each teacher were extracted for further analysis (Table 19). When the length of the corpus was limited to 1,500, the LV ratio of the six classes had relatively similar results, with Teacher B and Teacher E showing comparatively higher scores. The overall mean of the LV ratio of the six teachers was 28.7% which is comparable to the overall mean of the LV ratio of the nine teachers (28.33%) observed in Meara, Lightbown and Halter's study.

Table 19: Lexical Variation of individual teacher (with corpus of 1,500 words each)

Teachers	Tokens	Types	LV ratio
T-A	1,500	420	28%
T-B	1,500	507	33.85%
T-C	1,500	400	26.85%
T-D	1,500	363	24.14%
T-E	1,500	527	35.27%
T-F	1,500	360	24.08%

Teacher D who taught the most vocabulary in the one-week lessons did not provide a rich lexical environment for learners to "pick up" other words from her speech. Yet, the large number of tokens and a low LV ratio suggest that there had been lots of

repetition and recycling of words within the 240 minutes of lesson. Generally, the teacher was able to create a favourable acquisition environment for learners to encounter the words. It is not known, however, whether the new words were repeated more frequently than other, known, words.

Teacher C and Teacher E who taught relative fewer vocabulary items had a higher LV ratio. Teacher F who taught the fewst vocabulary items of all had almost the lowest LV score. Lexical variation in teacher talk does not indicate whether more explicitly taught words lead to a higher LV ratio or vice versa. There seems to be no correlation between the number of taught words and the lexical environment established for incidental vocabulary acquisition.

5.2.4 Frequency levels of lexical input

Tables 20 and 21 below show the proportion of words at different frequency levels. All six teachers had a greater proportion of words at VP1 and VP2, the first 2,000 most frequent words. Only 22% of the words were at VP3 or beyond, of the type found in upper secondary school and university texts. The classroom did not seem to provide a lot of opportunities for an "*i*+1" condition as "comprehensible input" for acquisition.

Table 20: Overall Word Frequency Levels

Frequency levels	**Number of words**	**Percentage**
VP1	3,744	63.7%
VP2	832	14.2%
VP3	361	6.1%
Sub-total	**4,937**	**84%**
Beyond VP3	939	16%
Total	**5,876**	**100%**

Table 21: Percentages of words by frequency level of individual teacher

	VP1		**VP2**		**VP3**		**Beyond VP3**		**Total**	
T-A	684	65.4 %	134	12.8 %	73	7 %	155	14.8 %	1,046	100 %
T-B	602	62.4 %	132	13.7 %	42	4.4 %	188	19.5 %	964	100 %
T-C	341	67 %	50	10 %	50	10 %	68	13 %	509	100 %
T-D	709	59.7 %	219	18.5 %	67	5.6 %	192	16.2 %	1,187	100 %
T-E	730	63.5 %	144	12.5 %	88	7.7 %	188	16.3 %	1,150	100 %
T-F	678	66.5 %	153	15 %	41	4 %	148	14.5 %	1,020	100 %

Most of the words beyond VP3 level were from the textbooks (see Appendix 9 for words from teacher talk that are beyond VP3.), for example, *sputnik*, *outraged, Luxembourg,* which are glossed; *grunt, dismay, embarrass,* which are glossed and syllabus-referenced, and, *professor, fantastic, bullet,* which are not glossed but are syllabus-referenced. The production of 'high-level' words relies very much on the wordlists in the textbooks and the syllabus.

There were a number of foreign names, such as *Isaac Asimov, Oscar,* and *Francesco,* and places, such as *Lauderdale, Jacksonville,* and *Brunswick,* in the word list beyond VP3. It is not surprising to find these unfamiliar proper names as all of the passages of the College English textbooks are adapted from western publications. The disadvantage of this is that the contents are detached from both the teacher's and the learners' daily life and world knowledge. Fortunately, most of these proper names are glossed in the textbooks and the background information can be read to the learners from the teacher's book. The reason for learning these proper names is for the sake of comprehending the rest of the passage. It would probably be more appropriate to update the passages in the College English textbooks so that learners could relate to the context and content more easily, however.

There are other words, like *kidding, grumble,* and *nettalk,* which do not appear in the textbooks nor the syllabus word list. These include topical proper nouns, such as *Clinton, Madonna, Bananarama* and pinyin and Chinese terms, such as, *yuan* (Chinese currency), *ren* (people), and *Liang* (Chinese surname). They appear when

the teacher elaborates the word meaning of the planned vocabulary or interacts with the learners. The occurrence of these words was closely linked with the way teachers taught the planned words and the delivery mode chosen by the teacher.

Using an expression coined by Krashen (1981), the teacher's speech was "roughly tuned". In other words, the teacher talk was approximately adjusted to the learners' second/foreign language development. This is different from "finely tuned" (Krashen 1981) which involves interaction with dynamic adjustment of utterances arising from the conversation rather than simplicity in form and semantic redundance (Robinson 1982 quoted in Ellis 1984). As Tang and Nesi (forthcoming) observed, interaction that triggers classroom dynamics includes student initiated vocabulary teaching and spontaneous talk between teacher and learners. This stimulates and encourages the production of 'high-level' words.

Classroom discourse in China is heavily teacher-led and is typical of the classroom discourse of large classes throughout the world. The discourse exemplifies a structured approach leading to the pedagogical goal – the teaching of the vocabulary item (see Example 25). Thus, non-topic related words do not usually occur as the explanation is focused, and in many cases, very brief, with interruptions from the learners to allow for diversity of topic and lexical variation.

Example 25: (T-E-1)

T: …….. "**Temporary**", lasting only for a limited time, but if lasting for a long time or forever. What's the word? The opposite to temporary is permanent. I think in the last semester, we have learned this word. "**permanent**". "**Stroll**", walk at leisure, [*stroll, promenade*]. Walk slowly at leisure. And there's another word "**wander**". it means move about aimlessly, without purpose. "Stroll" [*It means walking leisurely*]. "Wander" [*It means walking aimlessly*]. "**Commit**", do something bad or unlawful. [*make mistakes, how to say?*]

On the other hand, if the structure can be loosened to allow "freer explanation" and "interruptions", the classroom discourse changes and the lexical input will be changed accordingly. Example 26 below shows how the teacher attains the pedagogical goal of teaching "aptitude" while expanding the lexical input. (The italicized words are a translation of the Chinese words. Please refer to the CD rom for the original excerpts.)

Example 26: (T-A-1)

T: The first one, **aptitude**. It means natural ability or skill. Please pay attention to this, **natural ability** , it means what?

S: *it's natural*

T: Yeah. [*it's natural*]. You're born with aptitude. [*There is "inborn", and something developed afterwards, how do you call that?*]

S: **Skill.**

T: Skill? [*There is another word for it, we have mentioned it before.*] **Ability**? [*it's a*] general word. [*We have mentioned another word, for example, when we talk about examination, competition. What kind of* test *is it?*]

S: Competence.

T: **Competence**, right. Aptitude and competence. Aptitude is natural ability, but competence is the ability you developed after learning., after learning. O.K. For example, the English test, English competence test, is a test to test your ability of what---how well you have learned English, right? [*This is not a natural aptitude of learning English. It' s how well you have learned English.*] How well you learn. [*This is called*] competence, aptitude [*is some you were born with*]. Now next word. **Normal**.

Example 26 above also illustrates another aspect of acquisition, which is the attention needed to realise the new input. Teacher A drew learners' attention to the new materials in the input by associating meaning with words, "aptitude" means "natural ability". She also asked learners' about the meaning of "natural ability", relating it to personal experience or prior knowledge when "competence" was introduced. Of course, there are other ways to draw learner's attention to the new input, for example, by associating sound with form and demanding higher cognitive activities such as the production of examples.

There were only a few incidents of culture or classroom specific words, e.g. *chopstick, classroom, homework,* in contrast to Tang and Nesi's findings

(forthcoming) in the junior secondary school classroom. This could probably be due to the fact that, firstly, almost all these words were non-syllabus-referenced words or words not found in the College English textbooks. Secondly, the idea of learning English as a tool for communication is stronger among secondary school teachers than among university teachers. Probably, this is because work to promote the communicative syllabus is done more intensively at secondary school level. There are public lessons, seminars, new textbooks and teacher training etc. Thirdly, the passages in the College English textbooks do not touch on Chinese culture, unlike the passages in the *Junior English for China* which talk mostly about the daily life of Chinese children. Finally, there are more occasions in the secondary school classroom where the teacher has to give instructions, manage the class and arrange the learning process. Management language of this kind rarely occurs in the tertiary classroom.

5.2.5 L1 and L2 use in the classroom

There has always been controversy about using L1 in the language classroom. Some argue that the use of the mother tongue will have positive effects on the learners and learning as they could be more focused on the demands of the task and could then be involved in higher quality discussion. It is argued that it reduces the learning load.

Elliott and Tao (1998) suggested that L1 translation is the most favourable teaching condition for recalling lexical meanings. Providing the L1 translation or eliciting the L1 translation seems to be equally sufficient and beneficial as aids to vocabulary retention.

However, the use of L1 in the language classroom deprives the learner of opportunities for exposure to the target language and practice in a simulated environment. In the Chinese classroom, the use of L1 in teaching seems to depend on the teachers, their teaching style and belief and even on the language competence of the teacher, rather than on the ability of the learners. For example: Teacher D is teaching in a non-key university which accepts average learners. She claimed that her learners have a low standard of English and low motivation. She used the most target language in the classroom. Teachers E and F are both teaching in a prestigious key university in the capital Beijing. Their learners have above average scores in the NMET, but their English classes were not conducted entirely in the target language.

There are signs in my data that teachers tended to rely quite heavily on L1 as a classroom language. This is shown in Table 22 below. The L1 was used as much as the L2 and some teachers, for example, Teachers A and C, L1 used it as principal language in English lessons.

Table 22: Teachers' choice of language

Class	Class time	Tokens in English	Tokens in Chinese	Number of English words per minute	Number of Chinese words per minute
T-A	100	4,200 (46%)	5,012 (54%)	42	50.12
T-A	100	2,173 (38%)	3,572 (62%)	21.73	35.72
T-B	100	3,143 (58%)	2,324 (42%)	31.43	23.24
T-B	100	1,359 (46%)	1,582 (54%)	13.59	15.82
T-C	120	938 (34%)	1,856 (66%)	7.8	15.47
T-C	120	910 (36%)	1,635 (64%)	7.58	13.63
T-D	120	5,368 (72%)	2,124 (28%)	44.73	17.7
T-D	120	6,486 (68%)	3,022 (32%)	54.05	25.18
T-E	120	2,980 (59%)	2,062 (41%)	24.83	17.18
T-E	120	1,479 (41%)	2,173 (59%)	12.33	18.11
T-F	120	3,733 (45%)	4,504 (55%)	31.11	37.53
T-F	120	3,956 (79%)	1,069 (21%)	32.97	8.91

The reliance on L1 in the classroom raises the question of the teachers' ability to explain vocabulary in English and their general command of the language. It could be an alarming indication of the teachers' lack of proficiency. Example 27 below shows how L1 was used in teaching the word "chop" to the learners. The teacher first tried to relate the new word to another word "chopstick". However, the learners could not give her the correct L1 equivalent. So, the teacher decided to teach both "chop" and "chopstick". She used L1 to give an illustrative example of "chop", then she switched to L2 for its parts of speech and L1 again for the translation. In teaching "chopstick", the teacher first gave an illustrative situation in L2. Then, she stopped the elaboration and decided to provide the L1 meaning of the word "chopstick" instead.

This switch of language could possibly suggest that the teacher felt more comfortable using L1 for extended speech or complicated ideas and L2 for brief and short utterances. Of course, the teacher could make decisions about language choice because of other reasons, such as the pace of teaching, learners' requests (if there are any), etc.

Example 27: (T-D-1)

529	T:	Next one, **chop**. Do you know, do you know chopstick? Do you know this word? Do you know **chopsticks**?
530	Ss:	[*stick*]
531	T:	Chopstick? Do you know chop? [*The flesh attaches to the bone. This ... this means spararib.*] Yes? As a…a ...a noun, it [*sparerib*] or [*chop*]. As a verb, also means [*chop*]. Chopsticks, what's the meaning of chopsticks? This one is... er...are produced in China. Asian people use chopsticks--- [*chopstick*].

Although experimental evidence has suggested that excessive explanation often resulted in learner incomprehension (Chaudron 1982), in Example 27 above, the teacher could have elaborated further in the L2 as the context and the meaning had already been made clear to the learners. The use of the target language allows repeated encounters with known words and increases exposure to unknown words. The over-reliance on the L1 deprives learners of access to the target language.

Furthermore, if providing the L1 equivalent becomes an established practice it seems likely that learners will "switch off" when the teaching is done in the L2 as they know that the L1 meaning will be provided anyhow. Heavy reliance on the L1 discourages learners from listening and processing in the target language. If most of the vocabulary items are "picked up" during exposure to the target language, this "switching off" mechanism will close the channel to incidental learning.

Also, as there is often no direct L1 equivalent for the target word, simply providing the L1 translation will lead to distortion of meaning and inappropriate use in the communicative context. It is certainly not reliable to assume that knowledge of the L1 equivalent indicates acquisition of the new word.

5.2.6 Learners' output

It could be a fallacy that when the teacher speaks more, it will automatically minimize learners' chance of participation. Teacher F spoke as much as the other teachers did in the lessons, but the learners in her class were able to vocalize and to take part in the learning process. In her lessons, she deliberately spared time at the beginning of the lessons for learners to talk freely about any topics, so the learners' output was raised.

The degree of participation is calculated on the basis of the total number of tokens from learners' speech, regardless of the language medium, over the total contribution of tokens from the teacher and learners. The higher the percentage, the more

opportunities the learners have to participate in class. Most studies use the amount of time as a measure of the TTT as proportion of time allowed for learners to participate. However, the classroom data in China did not reveal any individual or group activities. It is, therefore, unreliable to measure the time as an indicator of degree of participation. In this study, the token, regardless of the medium, is adopted as a measurement tool to reflect the TTT and learners' participation.

In most classes, learners' output was minimal (Table 23). This suggests that the classroom does not allow adequate "comprehensible output", as proposed by Swain (1985) for acquisition. Also, the learners' contribution included mainly choral pronunciation practice and individual responses. Participation through interaction with the teacher or among learners was rare. There was no way to try out new rules and acquire new language through output.

Table 23: Learners' output

Class	Teachers (Tokens)	Tokens in English	Tokens in Chinese	Degree of participation (%)
A	9,212	393	206	6.1
A	5,745	294	513	12.3
B	5,467	229	188	7.1
B	2,941	1,270	1,075	44.4
C	2,794	193	1	6.5
C	2,545	15	46	2.3
D	7,492	676	255	11.1
D	9,508	543	34	5.7
E	5,042	222	20	4.6
E	3,652	668	610	26
F	8,237	2,134	67	21.1
F	5,025	2,562	53	34

5.3 Concluding remarks

Culture has a strong influence on learning style (Hedge 2000), but it also has a strong impact on teaching. As Cunningsworth (1984) put it, teaching is a unique combination of context and personality. In China, the context and personality are shaped by the culture. The context is the fusion of deep-rooted ideology and modern language needs defined by the national syllabus. The personality is a collective one that reflects the teaching philosophy, the perceived roles of the teacher and the learner, and the assumed learning behaviour. The Chinese culture of teaching and learning results in abundant similarities and minimal differences in instruction style.

The proportion of input/output types among the six teachers followed a similar pattern. Although Ellis and He (1999) found that MO had a positive effect on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, this output type was not found in the Chinese classrooms at all. The participation of the learners was confined to UMO which involves no negotiation at all . The degree of participation and the quality and quantity of output were all controlled by the teacher through the questions they posed to the learners.

Although researchers have claimed that IMI promotes long term retention of L2 vocabulary (Pica 1987, Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki 1995), this treatment was not practiced in the Chinese classrooms either. IMI and PMI have a similarly positive effect on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, but PMI is believed to have a higher acquisition rate (Ellis 1995). For this reason PMI could be regarded as a more appropriate treatment type in the Chinese tertiary classroom. The pragmatic significance of speed and quantity of teaching, therefore, justifies the pedagogical choice.

Although IMI was not prized in the Chinese classroom, the potential of this input type should not be neglected. As seen from the examples of IMI above, this input type is capable of enriching teacher talk in terms of variety and the quantity. It allows learners to have more exposure to the language through oral input and, in a way, it compensates for the "input-poor" environment.

Also, a possible change in learners' expectations cannot be ignored. Lee and Low (1999) studied the perception of effective teaching strategies among secondary school teachers and learners in Hong Kong. Their results show that there was a mismatch of expectation between teachers and learners. Similarly a study by Tang and Ng (2002), showed that learners in China did not desire more teaching but more exposure to the language through listening and speaking, despite the fact that teachers provided a lot of input in their teaching rather than exposure. My classroom corpus shows that there were minimal classroom activities at tertiary level, limited to presentation, mimicking the words from the teachers and reading out the answers of the exercises.

As seen from the examples above, the multiple treatment of words involving more than one input/output type characterizes vocabulary instruction in the Chinese classroom. On the one hand the teacher, as the authority on the subject, transmits knowledge of the meaning and audio representation of the words. On the other hand, learners demonstrate their attentiveness and respect by answering the teacher's questions. Unfortunately, communication with the teacher is non-interactive and the output from learners is unmodified, and this lack of opportunity for free negotiation and production does not encourage active processing and hypothesis testing.

Another finding from the analysis of the classroom data is that new words are rarely recycled. Multiple encounters are extremely important in helping learners to remember and recall new words, especially when the textbook does not provide a favourable recursive environment for vocabulary acquisition. However, recycling

only occurred in my data when the teachers adopted a clear three-stage approach to vocabulary teaching. This is certainly not the only way to promote word retention and recall. At present the sole means of teaching and learning words is through the texts in the textbooks, and this seems to be rather restrictive. Perhaps an appropriate way to improve teaching in the Chinese classroom would be to assign a greater number of reading tasks and production tasks which allow repeated exposure to taught words.

The teaching methods employed by the two teachers in Beijing suggested the possibility of change in the Chinese ELT classroom in years to come. Since the majority of research in this field is conducted in the capital, and since all changes and reform start from the key universities in the capital, the kind of teaching observed in the Beijing classrooms could signify the direction of change in the future. Foreseeing the changing role of English in China and noting the inadequacy of the syllabus, some leading universities have introduced new speaking skills components to their English language courses. The success of these relies heavily on the language competence of the teachers, however, and their understanding of what communication means.

In response to the demand for more proficient speakers of English, a new CET examination item on speaking is being piloted in some big provinces. This is to be implemented nation-wide when the exam format is finalized and the training of assessors is completed. The existing CET examination format and items will remain for some time as any major changes to the existing examination format will involve

enormous re-engineering programmes, re-training of teachers, re-education of the public and co-ordination with all stakeholders.

Because of the specific vocabulary requirements in the teaching and examination syllabus, the limited class time, and the greater number of glossed words in the textbooks, it is not surprising that teachers spend a substantial amount of time dealing with vocabulary. My classroom data, however, suggests that teachers are unsure exactly what to teach, how to teach, what types of knowledge are needed for the learners and types of processing adopted by them. It is not clear from my classroom data that the teachers were sure if they should concentrate on known or new words. Anyhow, they were unaware which words were known or new to the learners. There are no criteria to help teachers to judge if a more elaborated or a more simplified approach should be adopted. They are also not informed if explicit or implicit knowledge is needed by the learners and how the learning process proceeds from explicit and controlled to implicit and automatic.

We learn from the research findings that i) vocabulary needed for reading and speaking is different; ii) acquiring the form does not lead to the acquisition of function; and iii) knowing the visual representation of the words does not necessarily lead to knowing their aural representation. The vocabulary instructions given by the six teachers did not really take into account to these aspects of vocabulary learning.

The emphasis on L1 translation in explaining L2 words assumes a lexical transfer, meaning the teacher and even the learner have established that there is a semantic correspondence between the L1 word and the L2 word. Lexical transfer may lead to successful acceptance of the word, but it does not necessarily lead to successful use of the word. It may lead to lexical transfer errors. This is particularly the case for culturally-biased lexical items.

My study of English vocabulary input was not restricted to the words in print and explicit vocabulary teaching items. It also included the quality and quantity of oral input from the teachers. The analysis of teacher talk is done with the purpose of helping teachers to meet the pedagogical goals on the one hand, and reflecting the reality of the classroom and suggesting appropriate and attainable models for language teachers to follow within the classroom context on the other hand. The measure of LV and frequency levels suggests that the Chinese classroom in terms of quantity and quality is lexically impoverished. Teacher talk provides some sort of lexical environment for acquisition, but it is not a rich one.

As Krashen (1982) asserted, the more the communication in the classroom environment is approximated to the real world, the greater the extent of acquisition. In other words, the best lexical environment is a virtual representation of the natural language setting. However, the language that the teachers used was "caretaker" language and the interaction was limited to display questions only. Learners had no opportunities to negotiate meaning. The EFL classroom is not an "acquisition-rich"

setting at all and input from teachers is not the best kind of lexical input for acquisition. The classroom does not provide an environment for natural exposure. It is an artificial one, with the special features of classroom language. Teachers use simple language and vocabulary. The choice of words is also restricted because of the limited functions that could possibly take place in the classroom.

If most vocabulary is acquired by incidental learning, learners need to be exposed to sources in order to "pick up" new words. The teacher as a lexical source, as suggested in this study, did not provide a rich environment for lexical growth. However, I believe that teacher talk is important in providing comprehensible input for incidental vocabulary acquisition, and that the teacher has to be able to provide a lexically rich environment in the foreign language classroom. It could be argued that more teacher talk will deprive learners of participation. However, it all depends on how the lesson is delivered and what activities are involved. I do not suggest free talk as the sole means of increasing learner's output as it is not conducive to the teaching schedule for attaining the pedagogical goals defined by the syllabus and the cultural framework. There is a need to balance the TTT and learners' output in order to raise learners' participation and stimulate a richer lexical environment.

The potential of the teacher as a source of lexical input is overlooked. With appropriate teaching methods, learners acquire explicitly taught words through intensive treatment. With rich lexical oral input, they "pick up" many other words through extensive exposure.

To sum up, there are problems with the teaching:

- Although teachers are well-prepared, the quality of teaching is sacrificed to its quantity. Words which deserve more thorough treatment have to be sacrificed in order to teach a larger quantity of new words within the assigned class time.
- The vocabulary teaching load is extremely heavy. Perhaps that explains why the concentrated method and memorization are so popular as they do not require a lot of precious class time and learners can quantify their progress.
- Limited class time, traditional teaching practices and a tight teaching schedule allow little room for interaction which could possibly trigger more lexical output and lexical variety.
- The teaching methods do not allow learners' participation, which is a way to stimulate lexical output for acquisition.
- Teachers fail to use various teaching methods to teach different types of word, e.g. high frequency word and academic words, and to aid the acquisition of different types of word knowledge, e.g. productive and receptive.
- The teaching strategy is monotonous with heavy emphasis on L1 translation.
- The reliance on L1 impedes a rich lexical environment for incidental acquisition.
- Teacher talk lacks variety and high-level words.

Chapter Six

Conclusion and Implications

China has a long history of English language teaching going back to the 19th century. It is believed to have the largest number of English learners in the world. Currently, there are about 72 million full-time learners studying English as a compulsory subject at secondary schools and universities. Each year, about four million non-English major university students are undertaking the College English education.

The quantification of English teaching in China does not end there. The lexical environment in the classroom can be envisaged in terms of "numbers" as well. All learners taking the College English education have to acquire 5,650 words prescribed in the College English syllabus and 7,216 glossed words in the College English Intensive Reading textbooks within the assigned 280 semester hours. With the total number of words covered in the syllabus and the textbooks, each teacher has to explain a new word approximately every 1.9 minutes.

So far, there has been no systematic study of the words acquired by the huge number of Chinese learners and of the ways in which the large number of new words is treated in the classroom. There have been studies which show how the teaching paradigms in China are informed by the context of politics, economics, culture and social climate (see Chapter Two). However, these contextual factors do not directly manipulate the teaching paradigms. The influence is exerted through a centralized

education system, which is characterized by a strong link between the national syllabuses, textbooks and examination.

Vocabulary is a discrete language item in the national syllabus. The principal sources of learning the vocabulary are from the textbooks and the teacher. Figure 8 below provides a schema of the vocabulary input in the tertiary classroom

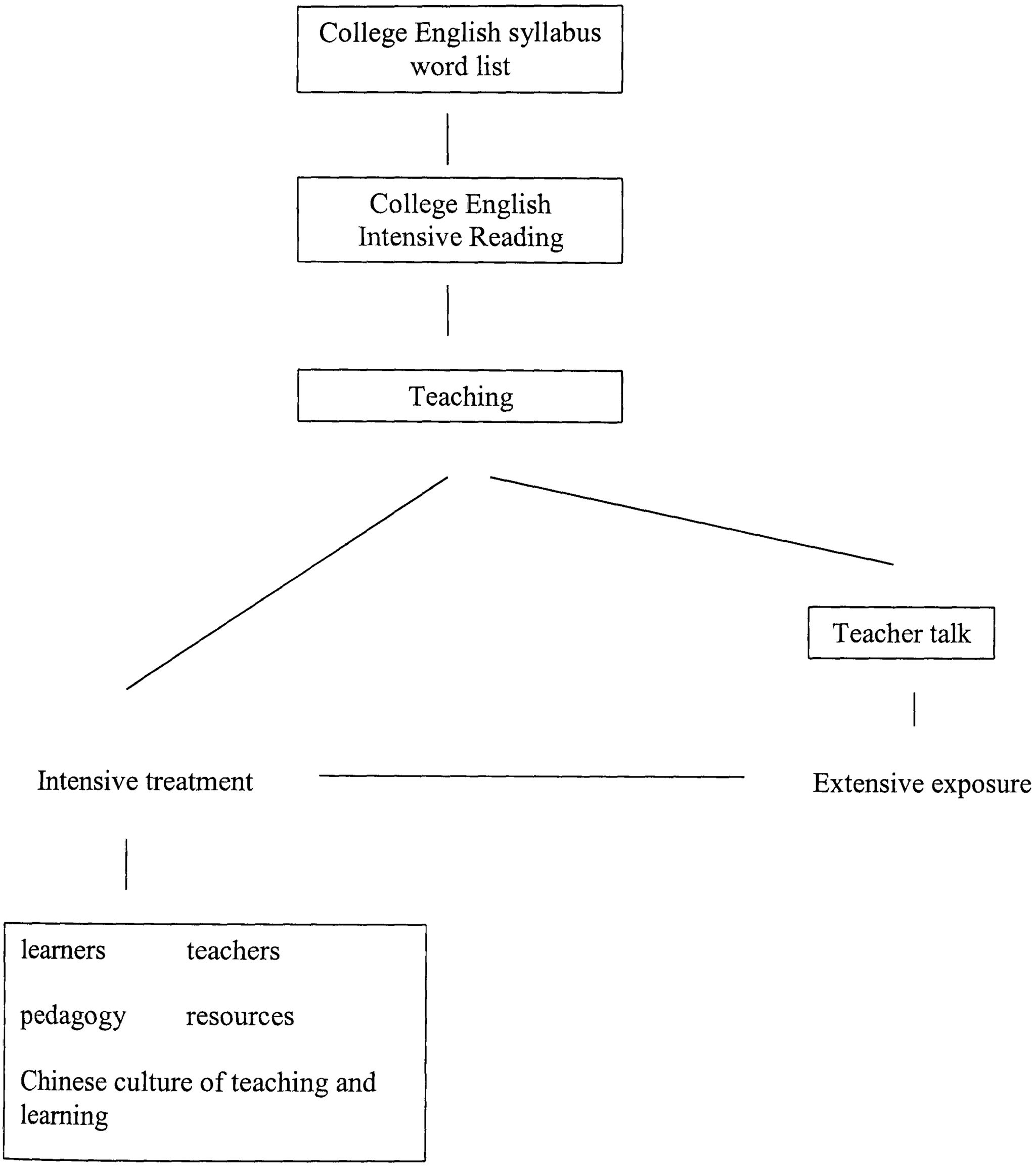

Figure 8: Contextual factors affecting vocabulary input in the tertiary classroom

My study of vocabulary input began with an in-depth examination at the macro-contextual level. I studied the College English word list and the word list generated from the glossaries of the College English Intensive English textbooks. I compared them with the *General Service List* for the basic vocabulary, the third frequency list of *VocabProfile* for the most frequent words in textbooks at upper secondary and university levels and the *Academic Word List* for the most frequent words for academic study. Each of these lists represented a different category of words needed by an ESL/EFL learner at different levels of studying and for different communicative purposes.

Following the findings of the analysis of my data in Chapter Four, I am in the position to answer the first and second research questions that were raised at the beginning of this study. What is the nature of word lists in China? What is the relationship between the syllabus wordlist and the vocabulary presented in the textbooks?

Even though it was not mentioned in the national syllabuses that some forms of progression, sequencing and co-ordination can be observed, one would naturally assume that the elementary level words of the College English syllabus word list or C(E) are included in the two word lists at secondary school level as well. In fact, JSS and SSS do cover 97% of the C(E) words. They also provide a coverage of 40% of the C(I) and 9% of the C(A) word lists. The overlap suggests that the recurrence of words at university will provide an opportunity for transforming the receptive

vocabulary to a productive one if teachers are aware of the known words to the learners and if appropriate teaching methods are adopted. Most of the JSS and SSS words (84%) matched with *GSL*, suggesting that basic vocabulary is the focus of vocabulary learning at secondary school level.

At university level, although there is a trend away from the teaching of basic vocabulary, there is not a particularly growing demand for the teaching of academic words. Among the 5,650 words prescribed in the College English word list, most of the C(E) and C(I) words (44%) and C(A) words (74%) were "other" words, meaning that they were not found in the three frequency lists I used in this study. They were not basic vocabulary, the high frequency words at upper secondary and university levels, or academic words. The nature of the "other" words cannot be verified. Thus, the learning objective of the College English word list is ambiguous.

The centralized education system has assumed a close relationship between the syllabus and the textbooks. The College English syllabus lists the words to be acquired by the learners and the textbook is the vehicle to achieve the goal. However, the College English Intensive English textbooks only cover 81% of the College English syllabus word list. There are another 7% in the Extensive Reading textbooks. The remaining 11% of the College English syllabus words are not covered in the textbooks which are the sole means of achieving the vocabulary requirements.

On top of the 88% coverage of the College English word list, the College English textbooks provide 2,631 extra words in the Intensive English series and 2,176 in the Extensive English series. However, most of these extra words do not fall into any of the word lists chosen for comparison. The textbooks provide a large number of "other" words for acquisition. Again, the nature of these "other" words is unknown.

My study of vocabulary input continued with the examination of lesson transcriptions. The discourse data revealed the input/output types of vocabulary treatment and the lexical richness of the teacher talk (please refer to Chapter Five). The analysis of classroom interaction provides answers to the last three research questions raised at the beginning of this study. What is the relationship between the words prescribed in the syllabus and the vocabulary presented in the classroom? What is the nature of vocabulary instruction? Do the FL classrooms provide a rich lexical environment for incidental vocabulary?

Of course, teachers will not teach directly from the syllabus. They teach according to the textbooks. They teach the words which are "signaled" in the textbooks as important, and which they assume to be the words from the College English syllabus word list. These are the glossed words in each unit. They were taken as planned words in my study as teachers were prepared to teach these glossed words. However it was found that the six teachers only explicitly taught 39% of the glossed words. Based on this percentage, it was estimated that only 32% of the words from the syllabus word list would have received intensive treatment. Concerning the teaching

methods, teachers relied much on PMI and UMO. The PMI is a teacher-dominated delivery pattern which fits into the teaching and learning culture in China. It is also probably the advocated vocabulary teaching method hidden in the textbook through the provision of L1 translations and definitions in L2. UMO mainly consisted of pronunciation drills and translation tasks at the end of the lesson for consolidation. IMI and UMI were less common and MO was nowhere to be found in my classroom data.

Classroom data shows that IMI stimulates more lexical input and lexical variety from the teachers. However, it was not a favored vocabulary treatment type. When the teacher talk was analyzed, it was found that their oral input did not provide a lexically rich environment in terms of the variety and the number of rare words. Although the Chinese classroom was dominated by teacher talk, the oral input from the teacher did not create a rich lexical environment.

My research questions were answered, but at the same time, they brought up other issues that deserve special attention. The presence of many "other" words in both the College English syllabus word list and the textbook word list suggests a failure to define learning objectives in the College English syllabus word list. The effect is detrimental and widespread as the syllabus directs the textbook design and the textbooks shape the teaching. Eventually, what the learners acquire might be just a large number of words that are not useful to them at all.

The inclusion of "other" words could be a political and social decision resulting from the demand for translators in the 80's when the word list was devised. However, with the speedy process of globalisation and China's entry in the WTO, the role of English has changed. Modern China needs people who can use the language to communicate. However with no clear indication of words for productive knowledge either in the syllabus or in the textbooks, and with the same examination format, one must expect the same vocabulary teaching methods that only develop receptive knowledge.

There are obvious problems with the source materials which the College English word list is based on. They are old and many do not have clear compilation criteria. It is claimed that there are objective selection criteria, however, subjectivity seems to override these. If any improvement is to be made to the textbooks and teaching, the first thing to do is to improve the syllabus word list, revise the source list, reduce the degree of subjectivity in word selection and give more linguistic information about the words.

The textbook issue is more problematic. It is the "middle-man" between the College English syllabus and teaching. It, therefore, inherits the inadequacy and the pitfalls of the syllabus and passes them onto the teachers. There has been no study to evaluate and monitor the vocabulary requirements in the textbooks. My study has analyzed the quantity and the nature of the words but the study of the vocabulary input from the textbooks can further be improved if all the passages of the IR and ER are scanned and analysed to check for the rate and number of recurrences.

Since teachers will not dare to deviate from the textbooks, the information and the guidance that the textbooks provide pre-determine the teaching method in the classroom. Teachers were inclined to use L1 translation and definitional meanings as they are provided in the textbooks. Teachers had to teach a large number of words because these words are "signaled" as important. However, these glossed words are not graded and sequenced according to word type and level of difficulty. There is no difference between the order of teaching a high frequency word and a low frequency word, a highly imageable word and a less imageable word. It is also up to the teacher to decide if they will handle the phonological representation of a word. There is no way to know if some of the glossed words are known words to the learners or if the words are to be learnt as productive vocabulary. Thus, every word is treated equally and similarly. Prior research findings regarding the level of lexical difficulty and the mental lexicon of Chinese learners are not related to the textbook design in any way.

Teachers are not involved in choosing what words to be taught and are passive about the order of the words to be taught. Textbook writers do not seem to have the initiative to grade, sequence and arrange the selected words for more effective teaching and learning. Worse still, they include nothing about the development of vocabulary learning strategies, such as guessing from context, mnemonics, word formation, etc.

It is not my proposal to remove the importance of the textbook. However, teachers need to develop the ability to know how to use the textbook. They should have the ability and knowledge to select words from the glossaries for intensive treatment and to decide on the appropriate teaching method for known words, new words, high frequency words, academic words, words in the same semantic networks, code-switch and phonological representation. Independent decisions can promote effective teaching and time management.

Although teachers in China are devoted to explicit vocabulary teaching, they should also be aware of the potential of providing lexical exposure for their learners. Their speech, under appropriate conditions of comprehensible input, could promote incidental vocabulary acquisition. However, this does not seem to be a major concern of teachers. Their mindset remains on helping the learners to acquire the glossed words in the textbooks to meet the vocabulary requirements in the CET.

One way to deal with the issue of the impoverished lexical environment in the classrooms observed in this study is to see the vocabulary instructions and lexical environment as problems and approach them with the need for change and innovation. However, I do not recommend that the entire system should be destroyed, or that there should be a complete transformation of teaching practice.

In order to improve the lexical environment, it is necessary to expand the topics and enrich the interaction. Observation of classroom activities and occurrences of "high-

level' words in my data suggests that only when teachers use the target language more often, explaining words with elaboration, and interacting with learners, can a rich and varied lexical environment be created.

To create a rich lexical environment, one of the major issues is the choice of language. The foreign language classroom in China is dominated by its mother tongue. My data have shown that the L1 was used not only for explaining vocabulary items but also as a medium to communicate with the learners. The heavy reliance on L1 can be regarded as an indication of effective and efficient teaching or as an alarming signal of the lack of proficiency of the teacher and of inadequate training. This needs to be further investigated.

The contextual factors affecting vocabulary input in the Chinese classroom have already been shown in Figure 8. However, any attempts to create more contexts in the classroom for more oral input should be encouraged. Bowers (1980 quoted in Malamah-Thomas 1987) listed six contexts for verbal behaviour of the teacher in the classroom. They are: questioning/eliciting; responding to learners' contributions; presenting/explaining; organizing/giving instructions; evaluating/correcting; socialising/establishing and maintaining classroom rapport. These contexts are not new to any teachers but the potential of allowing teachers to create more lexical input should not be ignored. Attempts to negotiate meaning with learners and create opportunities for learners to interrupt can open more opportunities to wider lexical variety. A richer lexical environment requires conscious effort from the teachers to

allow more teacher-learner interaction, more topics nominated by the teachers or learners and more spontaneous exchanges.

It is also worth developing the reflective thinking ability of the teacher to raise the quality and not just the quantity of teacher talk. To enrich the teacher talk, teachers can build on redundancy in L2 and use less L1 while explaining the words. They can critically analyze their taped lessons to raise their awareness of the use of lexis, the vocabulary teaching methods and the language use in the classroom. They can make a list of teaching strategies which enable more oral lexical input but not necessarily reduce the learners' output and their chance of participation.

Teacher talk could also be introduced to the teacher training programme to establish a solid and sound knowledge and ability to enrich the quality of their speech for a rich lexical environment.

One of the crucial aspects for incidental learning is drawing learners' attention to the presence of new materials and maintaining their interest to find out the meanings of words. Motivational theory suggests that learners need to pay attention to what they are listening to in order to learn. Without noticing the vocabulary, incidental learning will not take place automatically. Good and Brophy (1987 quoted in Nunan 1990) suggested distributing questions fairly to the learners to stimulate attention.

To regulate the input-poor environment, there is a need to expand the exposure to the target language. Some of the universities have an English corner in the campus for learners to practise their spoken English with one another. Those who participate are very active and eager to speak. However, what they need is a real English speaking communicative context or at least a simulated language environment in the classroom. On the one hand, they can try and test their knowledge of English; on the other hand, they learn the skills and strategies in communication.

Extensive reading is luxurious to many learners when there are places where learners do not even have the textbook. In some universities, internet access is getting more convenient than finding a printed English book. Huang (1999) has put up a data bank of Business English vocabulary on the web, based on frequency counts, hoping to assist the teaching of Business English in the country.

It is worth developing a print rich environment within the classroom and the campus, since most learners live in the dormitory and the campus is their home. However, the purpose of setting up the print rich environment has to be conveyed clearly to the teachers and to the learners. It can consolidate taught items and allow wider exposure to the target language. Although the ultimate goal is to enrich the language environment, the substance or content of the display will be very different with different purposes in mind.

In a country with a strong heritage, huge population and diverse teaching and learning environments, any changes to the existing practice can only be successful when there is close co-ordination between borrowed and inherited methodologies and careful consideration of the Chinese philosophy of education. If the teachers, students, resources and physical environment are not prepared for the change and if the reform ignores the "Chinese characteristics" of education, the reform is doomed to failure. As Paine (1997:66) rightly points out, "most significant change requires considering the culture of teaching and of conceptualising teaching as a cultural, economic, social and political practice".

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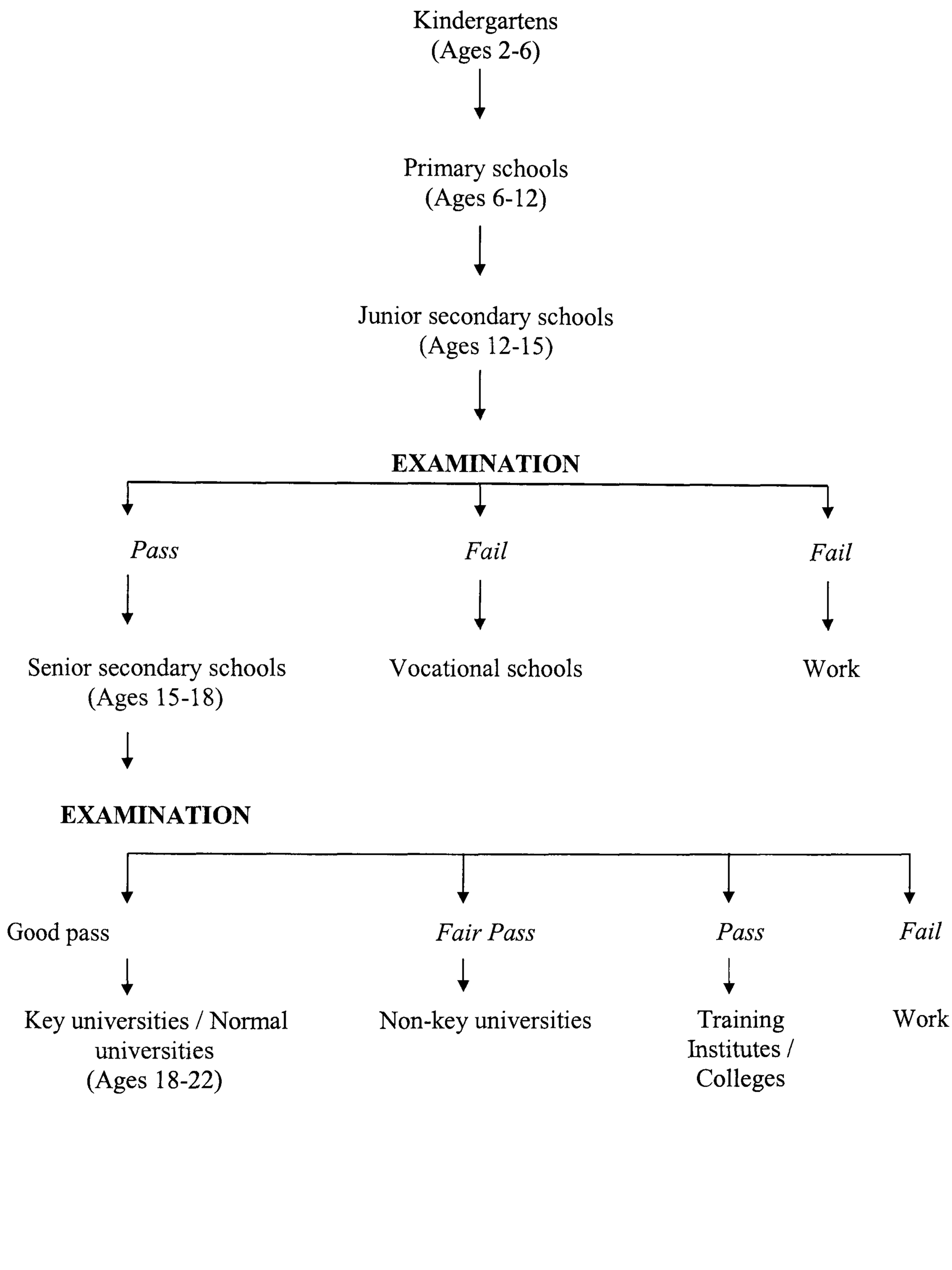
Appendix 1: Summary of EFL development in China

Periods	Major events	Syllabus	Pedagogy	Textbooks
Before 1862	The first foreign language school was established in 1289. The major foreign language in the 13th century was Persian. It was taught for political, social and economic reasons. From 1818 to 1861, English teaching was first in by the missionaries from America and Britain. But the number of schools and students were limited and thus English teaching was not significant.	information not available	information not available	information not available
1862 – 1910	In 1862, the first School of Combined Learning (京師同文館) was set up in Beijing by the Qing Government. English was learned as one of the school subjects. English was the most popular language under the "semi-colonised" political scenario in the late Qing Dynasty. In 1895, universities began English teaching. In 1902, the Education Commissioner laid down the English syllabus for secondary schools. English was made the major foreign language at secondary schools.	<u>secondary school</u> To attend 5 hours per week on spelling, pronunciation, grammar and reading. <u>university</u> To do writing, reading aloud, grammar, sentence patterns and translation.	It was believed that translation was the major teaching and learning activity.	English textbooks were written by Chinese linguists and published by local publishers.
1911 – 1948 Kuomin-tang (KMT) period	English teaching expanded rapidly. English as a foreign language enjoyed the most favoured and prestigious role at universities under semi-feudalism and semi-colonialism. Lectures, reference books and teaching materials were all in English. In 1932 and 1934, the first cross-province uniform English achievement test at university level was conducted for research purposes (Li and Cheung 1988: 286-292). In 金陵女子大學 all students studied English in their 1st and 2nd years. They needed to get a mandatory pass on the reading comprehension and usage test	<u>secondary school</u> To attend 6 – 9 hours per week in pronunciation, spelling, reading, translation, dictation, conversation, grammar, calligraphy, sentence-making and composition. <u>university</u> no official	Direct method was adopted with the assistance of the many western teachers in the semi-colonial political environment.	Most widely-used textbooks were written by local linguists or foreign teachers working in China Books from western countries were also adopted in teaching or as reading materials

	before proceeding to the third year (Li and Cheung 1988:297). In 1948, national English syllabuses for junior secondary and senior secondary were approved. The concept of evaluative and uniform achievement tests flourished.	syllabus		
1949 – 1965 People's Republic of China (PRC) period	The closing down of the Schools of Combined Learning led to demand and development of foreign language university and comprehensive university. The teaching of Russian as a foreign language was enforced at secondary and university levels when the New China was founded. In 1956, College English was established for all non-English major university students to study English as their first foreign language. From 1957, English teaching resumed gradually at all levels.	To learn vocabulary, grammar and translation.	Kairov's methods of "teachers as leaders and students as learning subjects" - a way to understand the revolutionary ideology, was widely practised. Grammar-translation, Audio-lingualism	The national textbooks, *English,* (Series 1-5) were published by People's Education Press (PEP). In 1961, professors from Fudan University, Shanghai, compiled a set of English textbooks for non-major university students.
1966 – 1976 Cultural Revolut-ion	English teaching halted. English reappeared in the curriculum in 1970 but with no official syllabus.	To teach vocabulary list, translation, grammar exercises.	Grammar-translation replaced Audio-lingualism because of the "unhealthy connotation" with the American language learning method.	Textbooks were produced at provincial and municipal levels with political texts
1977 – 1984 Moderni-sation period under PRC	The Open door policy in 1977 and the Four Modernisation programmes (agriculture, industry, national defence, and science and technology) proclaimed in 1979 led to enthusiasm for learning foreign languages throughout the country. English is seen as a utilitarian tool to catch up with the West. Interpreters, translators, proficient scientists and technology specialists were in demand.	To develop reading and self-learning abilities with basic skills in listening, speaking and writing.	Grammar-translation, Audio-lingualism Grammar was taught explicitly and explanations in Chinese were given in the textbooks.	Textbooks, *English (Series 5-6)*, published in 1977 and revised in 1982 in accordance with the syllabuses, were used nation-wide.

	Acute shortage of English teachers led to imprudent decision of retraining and converting the Russian language teachers to English teachers. In 1978, English as the first foreign language was made compulsory for all non-English major university students. The 80's saw the breakthrough of English education at university. Since 1983, the English results in the National Entrance Examination have been counted for university admission.			
After 1985 Education reform under PRC	Large scale education reform was endorsed. Nine-year compulsory education was promulgated in 1985. In 1985 and 1986, the National College English syllabus was endorsed and released. In 1987, the College English Test (CET) for non-English major was introduced. to measure English achievement. In 1992, the new English syllabus for junior secondary schools was introduced. In 1995, the new English syllabus for senior secondary schools was implemented. In 1999, a revised College English syllabus for students of Arts and Sciences was released with a revised word list.	<u>secondary school</u> To develop the ability to use the language as a tool for communicati on through the training of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. <u>university</u> "To develop a relatively high level of competence in reading, an intermediate level of competence in Listening and a basic competence in writing and speaking." (College English Syllabus 1995: 1)	Eclectic	National textbooks, *English (Series 7-8)* A new recommended set of textbooks, *Junior English for China* and *Senior English for China,* was published by PEP. A new set of *College English* for university non-English major students was published in 1986 and revised in 1997.

Appendix 2: Education and Examination Systems in China



Appendix 3: Summary of the historical development of vocabulary instruction

Approach	Vocabulary in teaching	Method
Grammar Translation approach at the end of 18th century	▪ bilingual word lists for instructional aids ▪ learnt for translation purposes	▪ definitions and etymology of words taught in reading lessons
Reform Movement at the end of 19th century	▪ word list compiled intuitively for instruction	▪ emphasis on phonetic training
Direct Method	▪ exposure to the language	▪ meaning related directly to the target language without translation ▪ emphasis on interaction ▪ use of pictures, charts, realia, demonstration, association of ideas
Reading / Situational language teaching in the 1920s and 1930s	▪ word-frequency list to facilitate reading skills	▪ practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities
Audio-lingual method - or structural method	▪ vocabulary selected according to simplicity and familiarity	▪ attention to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of basic sentence patterns ▪ practice with morphological variations and syntactic structures through drills
Communicative Language Teaching	▪ exposure to the language	▪ contextualised, naturally sequenced language and natural, communicative exposure
Natural Approach	▪ vocabulary growth through reading in "low-anxiety situation"	▪ emphasis on comprehensible and meaningful input

Appendix 4: Sample College English word list

pollution【I】
[I] *n.* 污染
pond【E】
[E] *n.* 池塘
ponder【A】
[A] *v.* 考虑,沉思
pool【E】
[E] *n.* 水潭,池子,水塘
poor【E】
[E] *a.* 贫穷的
[E] *a.* 可怜的
[E] *a.* 低劣的,不好的
pop[1]【I】
[I] *n.* 扑的一声
[A] *v.* 突然出现,发生
pop[2]【I】
[I] *a.* 流行的,通俗的
pope【A】
[A] *n.* 教皇
popular【I】
[I] *a.* 广受欢迎的,有名的
[I] *a.* 通俗的,流行的,大众的
population【E】
[E] *n.* 人口
porch【I】
[I] *n.* 门廊
pore【A】
[A] *n.* 毛孔
pork【I】
[I] *n.* 猪肉
porridge【I】
[I] *n.* 粥,麦片粥
port【I】
[I] *n.* 港口
portable【A】
[A] *a.* 轻便的,手提(式)的
porter【I】
[I] *n.* 搬运工人
portion【I】
[I] *n.* 部分,份
portrait【I】
[I] *n.* 肖像,画像
position【E】
[E] *n.* 位置
[E] *n.* 职位,职务
[I] *n.* 姿势,姿态
[A] *n.* 见解,立场
[A] *n.* 形势,情况
positive【I】
[I] *a.* 确定的,肯定的
[A] *a.* 正面的,积极的
[A] *a.* 正的,阳性的
[A] *a.* 十足的,完全的
possess【I】
[I] *v.* 拥有,占有
possession【I】
[I] *n.* 所有物
[I] *n.* 拥有,占有
possibility【I】
[I] *n.* 可能性
[A] *n.* 可能的事,希望
possible【E】
[E] *a.* 可能的,做得到的
[I] *a.* 合理的
possibly【E】
[E] *ad.* 可能地,也许,或者
post[1]【I】
[I] *n.* (支)柱
[I] *v.* 贴出,宣布,公告
post[2]【E】
[E] *n.* 邮政
[E] *v.* 邮寄,投寄
post office [E]
[E] 邮局
post[3]【I】
[I] *n.* 哨所,岗位,职位

Appendix 5: CET exam format

CET 4	CET 6
Total no. of questions: 91 **Total score: 100** **Total time allowed: 120 minutes**	**Total no. of questions: 81** **Total score: 100** **Total time allowed: 120 minutes**
1. Listening comprehension ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 20 questions ❑ 20 marks ❑ 20 minutes 2. Reading comprehension ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 20 questions ❑ 40 marks ❑ 35 minutes 3. Vocabulary and structure ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 30 questions ❑ 15 marks ❑ 20 minutes 4. Cloze ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 20 questions ❑ 10 marks ❑ 15 minutes 5. Writing (100 – 120 words) ❑ 1 question ❑ 15 marks ❑ 30 minutes *[Source: College English Test – Band four – Syllabus and Sample Test. 1987. Shanghai Foreign Language Press.]*	*Paper 1* 1. Listening Comprehension ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 20 questions ❑ 20 marks ❑ 20 minutes 2. Reading Comprehension ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 20 questions ❑ 40 marks ❑ 35 minutes 3. Vocabulary and structure ❑ Multiple choices ❑ 30 questions ❑ 15 marks ❑ 20 minutes *Paper 2* 4. Error correction ❑ 10 questions ❑ 10 marks ❑ 15 minutes 5. Writing (120 words) ❑ 1 question ❑ 15 marks ❑ 30 minutes *[Source: College English Test – Band six – Syllabus and Sample Test. 1994. Shanghai Foreign Language Press.]*

Appendix 6: Treated (planned and unplanned) and untreated (planned) words

Teacher A
Bk. 2 Unit 9

	treated planned words	treated unplanned words	untreated planned words
1	absolute	ability	aid
2	academic	academy	Asimov, Issac
3	academician	angels	ass
4	aptitude	appearance	automobile
5	arbiter	applied	barometer
6	auto	argue	basic
7	buck	award	bent
8	clerk	believe	budget
9	complacent	challenge	candidate
10	devise	competence	carpenter
11	divine	competitors	certify
12	estimate	complacently	colleague
13	evaluate	completely	confirm
14	evaluation	creativity	contract
15	explore	dirty	contribute
16	figure	dress up	credit
17	foist	embarrassed	dam
18	fuss	fasten	determine
19	god-damn	figurative	doc
20	grant	fraud	dumb
21	hammer	height	economics
22	hardware	indicate	encyclopedia
23	hasten	inevitable	exceed
24	heartily	intelligence	feed
25	intricate	intelligent	few
26	joke	kind	formula
27	make-up	kitchen	glimmer
28	metaphor	listen	highly
29	normal	middle-ages	hood
30	personification	natural	idiom
31	picked	numerous	information
32	pin	pale	inner
33	private	panic	KP
34	pronouncement	police	lark
35	register	practical	lean
36	revive	practice	lower
37	scissors	pronunciation	measurement
38	similar	repeated	mechanics
39	simile	retardation	merely
40	smugly	satellite	method
41	sputnik	score	moron
42	subsection	self-satisfactory	move
43	uneasy	simply	numerical
44	verbal	species	oracle
45	whereupon	stupid	outlet
46	worthy	suppose	pedantic

47		trickery	pendulum
48		unconditional	plug
49			proportion
50			religious
51			relief
52			scholasticism
53			scissor
54			sophisticated
55			stopwatch
56			structure
57			superintendent
58			sure
59			swing
60			thunderstorm
61			type
62			vibration
63			wrong
64			yield

Teacher B
Bk. 1 Unit 10

	treated planned words	**treated unplanned words**	**untreated planned words**
1	anew	aboard	abandon
2	approach	abroad	alarm
3	banner	adolescent	brook
4	billow	awoke	Brunswich
5	breeze	Bermuda Triangle	catch
6	brightly	board	cloudy
7	chatter	captain	con
8	convert	chain	conclusion
9	dusty	coffee	congratulation
10	edible	conscious	continual
11	exclaim	consultant	dream
12	folklore	continuous	ease
13	fortify	core	exhaustion
14	Greenwich	curious	fiancé
15	guy	determined	Florida
16	handle	dirty	forthcoming
17	ill-advised	examining	ghost
18	ill-fitting	explore	harm
19	jail	fantastic	hint
20	mask	forget	incline
21	mysterious	fort	inn
22	oak	frozen	Jacksville
23	painfully	graceful	Johnson, Howard
24	pull	grey	landlord
25	rainy	hatred	loyalty
26	reappear	industrial	Middle East
27	retreat	master	midnight
28	root	method	mud

29	runaway	much-handled	murmur
30	snapshot	much-used	mystery
31	sometime	muddy	New Jersey
32	stun	nervously	Newcastle
33	swig	nod	outskirts
34	tide	notice	panic
35	tighten	ordered	parole
36	unformed	patrol	penetrate
37	vanish	plain	penetrating
38	well-informed	popular	perusal
39	wow	promote	pick
40		record	position
41		refrigerator	puzzle
42		repent	quit
43		retire	restless
44		smoke	rib
45		snow-covered	ridiculous
46		soldier	roast
47		sometimes	screw
48		somewhat	section
49		stand	self-conscious
50		sunny	severely
51		well-known	sorrow
52		well-paid	sweat
53		well-travelled	tradition
54		wine	vacation
55			vingo
56			wilderness
57			yeah

Teacher C
Bk. 2 Unit 4

	treated planned words	**treated unplanned words**	**untreated planned words**
1	advertise	act on	aggressiveness
2	advertisement	air	ambitious
3	algebra	awkward	attitude
4	application	bootlace	commission
5	apply	comprehensive	cradle
6	attach	crumb	crash
7	bloodshot	faint	cream
8	brick	forehead	customs
9	cabbage	however	dismiss
10	carpet	mobile	disgust
11	certificate	primary	drought
12	colonel	prove	easy-going
13	competent	run	engage
14	consist	streamed	enrol
15	constitute	study	flight
16	cricket	unstreamed	formal
17	depress	wrinkled	General Certificate of

			Education
18	depression		head
19	disapproval		infer
20	dismay		jeweller
21	evergreen		judging by
22	fume		kingdom
23	geometry		London
24	gravel		maintain
25	grunt		Negro
26	headmaster		obvious
27	importance		optical
28	incompetent		polish
29	indignity		promptly
30	interview		punch
31	leisure		purposely
32	local		recommendation
33	moustache		regulation
34	mumble		resume
35	obviously		rob
36	plus		sake
37	post		shipwreck
38	private		short of
39	prospect		skywriting
40	protest		smell
41	range		sneak
42	salary		soup
43	sandy-colored		stress
44	set-up		thunder
45	shrub		time
46	slender		in turn
47	slim		typewriter
48	stale		vote
49	straw		wheel
50	suburb		worthy
51	ultimate		Yankee
52	undo		
53	unpleasantly		
54	vital		

Teacher D
Bk.4 Unit 7

	treated planned words	**treated unplanned words**	**untreated planned words**
1	airy	absentmindedly	answer
2	amicable	address	Balkans
3	apartment	adult	body and soul
4	appertising	angel	club
5	asparagus	appetite	confess
6	assure	armful	corridor
7	attentive	at present	debt
8	attractive	awkward	establishment

9	beckon	basketful	Foyot
10	blush	bite	habit
11	cab	border	jaw
12	champagne	brightly	jungle
13	charming	brush	least
14	chat	bush	Paris
15	chop	caviar	Penn
16	cloned	cell	reputation
17	complacency	character	season
18	devastating	charge	sight
19	digestion	chopstick	start-up
20	drama	comfort	tendency
21	dramatic	contrast	
22	effusive	correspondence	
23	fancy	crash	
24	fare	cupful	
25	flash	dagger	
26	forbid	decline	
27	Franc	despair	
28	gaily	dispute	
29	generous	divorce	
30	generously	documents	
31	hands	earth	
32	head	embarrassing	
33	hospitable	enormous	
34	humor	environmental	
35	humorist	exaggerate	
36	immortal	experiences	
37	imposing	express	
38	impression	faintly	
39	inclined	fairer	
40	ingratiating	fate	
41	innocent	flatter	
42	instant	flesh	
43	juicy	fortune	
44	landscape	free moment	
45	Latin	gambling	
46	literature	gesture	
47	lord	giant	
48	luncheon	greedy	
49	Luxembourg	handful	
50	madame	hospital	
51	marvel	hostile	
52	mean	huge	
53	means	implied	
54	menu	improper	
55	might	inadequate	
56	modest	inexperienced	
57	mouthful	ironic	
58	mutton	issue	
59	nowadays	jam	
60	oblige	manage	
61	overload	marvelous	

62	overlook	meaning	
63	pardonable	movement	
64	passion	murderer	
65	pick	narrator	
66	presently	negotiation	
67	quarter	opera	
68	reassure	overweight	
69	retort	packetful	
70	revenge	paintings	
71	ruin	pale	
72	salmon	panic	
73	senator	patient	
74	sigh	peach	
75	snack	penny	
76	startle	practical	
77	stone	pregnant	
78	talkative	present	
79	task	priest	
80	tender	proceeded	
81	throat	promptly	
82	thrust	protest	
83	trifle	psychological	
84	vindictive	refuse	
85	waiter	retorted	
86	water	settle	
87	wicked	shark	
88	will	shelfful	
89		shook	
90		shortform	
91		sign	
92		sophisticated	
93		sore	
94		spadeful	
95		sparkle	
96		spoonfuls	
97		stout	
98		threaten	
99		tiny	
100		traffic	
101		trivial	
102		ungenerous	
103		unsophisticated	
104		victims	
105		view	
106		violently	
107		vivid	
108		ward	
109		watermelon	

Teacher E
Bk. 3 Unit 1

	treated planned words	treated unplanned words	untreated planned words
1	arbitrary	barrister	aha
2	brush	business	aluminum
3	circumstance	care	apologize
4	commit	circumscribe	apology
5	confirm	circumspect	arrestable
6	counterculture	clockwise	await
7	due	counteract	award
8	fate	counter-argument	belief
9	respectable	counterattack	brilliant
10	save	counter-charge	cabin
11	solicitor	counterclockwise	case
12	straight	counter-culturists	casual
13	stroll	counter-measure	chance
14	temporary	counter-offer	complain
15	wander	counterpart	complaint
16		crazy	conduct
17		discharge	conversational
18		doom	cost
19		doomsday	costly
20		drink-crazed	couple
21		enjoyable	court
22		exhaustible	courtroom
23		face	defence
24		gravest	defendant
25		innovator	dismiss
26		mood	disreputable
27		perfectly	doorstep
28		poetically	downfall
29		postpone	employer
30		president	employment
31		regrettable	expense
32		spokesman	felony
33		unemployed	given
34			gloomily
35			gloomy
36			guilty
37			highjacker
38			honorable
39			insurance
40			justice
41			legal
42			local
43			lump
44			magistrate
45			mission
46			monitor
47			nucleus
48			obscure

49			obvious
50			offence
51			outrage
52			petty
53			presumably
54			process
55			regard
56			reliable
57			reproachfully
58			resist
59			revolve
60			Richmond
61			Richmond Magistrates Court
62			scare
63			shot
64			stagger
65			subsequent
66			surrender
67			suspension
68			thorough
69			thoroughly
70			trial
71			unconcerned
72			witness
73			worldly

Teacher F
Bk. 2 Unit 10

	treated planned words	**treated unplanned words**	**untreated planned words**
1	chary	careful	absolutely
2	convey	cautious	activate
3	exhaust	economical	affirmation
4	grind	fantastic	alert
5	load	figuratively	anecdote
6	pension	home	apply
7	profits	leave	appreciate
8	quit	praise	appreciative
9	routine	receipt	apron
10	shrug	relay	arrival
11		start	artificial
12		stock	atom
13		transitional	attendant
14		watermelon	awry
15		while	batter
16			behavioral
17			best
18			bold
19			brief
20			bull

21			button
22			comment
23			complementary
24			compliment
25			consistent
26			consistently
27			constructive
28			convenient
29			countless
30			crayon
31			critical
32			crush
33			defensive
34			depart
35			discourage
36			distinctly
37			dozen
38			dramatic
39			dramatically
40			dreary
41			drown
42			earn
43			ebb
44			elaborate
45			embarrass
46			employee
47			excellence
48			explosion
49			expose
50			favouable
51			favourably
52			flourish
53			fortunate
54			frank
55			gas-station
56			generally
57			genius
58			glorious
59			glow
60			graceful
61			gracefully
62			harsh
63			housework
64			human
65			ice-cream
66			ignore
67			indirect
68			indirectly
69			instinctively
70			intricate
71			invest
72			investment
73			laundry

74			linguist
75			magician
76			margin
77			measure
78			miser
79			much
80			niece
81			oath
82			only
83			oppose
84			pace
85			pat
86			peaceful
87			perceptive
88			poet
89			poetry
90			previous
91			princess
92			quizzically
93			react
94			relay
95			reluctant
96			remark
97			reward
98			rewarding
99			salesman
100			scold
101			scrub
102			Shakespeare
103			skinny
104			somehow
105			spiteful
106			squabble
107			stain
108			stammer
109			stem
110			sunshine
111			superintendent
112			surprisingly
113			Susanna
114			suspense
115			tidy
116			tray
117			Twain, Mark
118			wag
119			wage
120			waitress
121			weary
122			wheel
123			youngster

Appendix 7: Categorizing input/output types of explicitly treated words

[N.B. The number of occurrences and their treatment of each word are shown in separate lines. For example: "*absolute*" is explicitly treated in two occasions in the one-week lessons. The methods of treatment are listed in two separate lines.]

	Teacher A Bk2 Unit 9	**Input/Output types**	**Teacher B Bk1 Unit 10**	**Input/Output types**	**Teacher C Bk2 Unit 4**	**Input/Output types**
1	intelligence	UMO	mysterious	PMI UMO PMI	apply	PMI, UMI
2	absolute	PMI, UMO PMI, UMO	promote	PMI	application	UMI
3	practice	PMI, IMI	record	PMI	interview	UMI
4	aptitude	PMI, UMO	explore	PMI	advertise	UMI
5	natural	UMO, PMI, IMI	Bermuda Triangle	PMI	advertisement	UMI
6	competence	PMI, UMO	folklore	PMI, UMO	local	UMI
7	normal	PMI, UMO	reappear	PMI	post	UMI
8	figure	PMI	anew	PMI, UMO	suburb	UMI
9	fuss	PMI, IMI	repent	PMI	slim	PMI, UMI
10	buck	PMI	sometime	PMI	depress	PMI, IMI, UMI
11	kitchen	UMO, PMI	sometimes	PMI	depression	UMI
12	register	UMO, PMI	tide	PMI	brick	UMI
13	complacent	PMI	vanish	PMI, UMO PMI UMO PMI UMO UMO PMI	gravel	UMI
14	academic	PMI	ill-fitting	PMI, UMO PMI	evergreen	UMI
15	academy	IMI, PMI	dusty	PMI	shrub	UMI
16	worthy	PMI, IMI PMI	mask	PMI, UMO PMI	fume	UMI

				UMO PMI UMO UMO		
17	auto	UMO, PMI, IMI	root	PMI, UMO UMO	headmaster	UMI
18	estimate	PMI, UMO	runaway	PMI	sandy-colored	UMI
19	grant	UMO, PMI, IMI UMO	brightly	PMI, UMO PMI UMO PMI UMO	moustache	UMI
20	hasten	UMI	swig	PMI PMI	disapproval	PMI, IMI, UMI
21	listen	UMI	retreat	PMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO	colonel	UMI
22	fasten	UMI	chatter	PMI PMI	private	UMI
23	explore	PMI	painfully	PMI	bootlace	UMI
24	pronouncement	UMO, PMI	jail	PMI	undo	PMI, UMI
25	divine	PMI	retire	PMI	grunt	UMI
26	devise	PMI, IMI	guy	PMI	unpleasantly	UMI
27	academician	PMI	patrol	PMI	stale	UMI
28	stupid	UMO	oak	PMI	cabbage	UMI
29	verbal	PMI	wow	PMI	crumb	UMI
30	intricate	PMI, IMI	exclaim	PMI UMO UMO, PMI	carpet	UMI
31	numerous	PMI	approach	PMI UMO UMO UMO	certificate	UMI
32	evaluation	UMO, PMI	method	PMI	bloodshot	UMI

33	subsection	PMI	unformed	PMI PMI	vital	PMI, UMI
34	foist	PMI	handle	PMI PMI UMO	mumble	PMI, UMI
35	fraud	PMI	snapshot	PMI	attach	PMI, IMI, UMI
36	trickery	PMI, UMO	tighten	PMI PMI UMO	importance	UMI
37	arbiter	PMI	fortify	PMI UMO, PMI	obviously	UMI
78	joke	PMI, UMO, IMI	stun	PMI, UMO UMO UMO PMI UMO	consist	UMI
39	hardware	PMI, UMO	banner	PMI	range	PMI, UMI
40	hammer	PMI, IMI	billow	PMI PMI PMI PMI	cricket	UMI PMI
41	clerk	PMI	core	PMI	set-up	UMI PMI
42	scissors	PMI	Greenwich	PMI	dismay	PMI, UMI
43	whereupon	PMI	board	UMO, PMI, IMI UMO	algebra	UMI
44	heartily	PMI	abroad	PMI	geometry	UMI
45	smugly	PMI	aboard	PMI	incompetent	UMI PMI
46	complacently	PMI	fort	PMI	competent	UMI
47	self-satisfactory	PMI	grey	PMI	leisure	UMI
48	god-damn	PMI	plain	PMI	salary	PMI, UMI
49	uneasy	PMI	frozen	UMO, PMI	plus	UMI
50	make-up	PMI	pull	PMI PMI UMO	protest	PMI, UMI PMI

51	dress up	PMI, UMO	popular	UMO	straw	UMI PMI
52	score	IMI	curious	PMI	prospect	UMI
53	retardation	PMI	captain	PMI	constitute	PMI, UMI
54	pale	UMO, PMI,	soldier	PMI	ultimate	PMI, UMI
55	unconditional	PMI	wine	UMO	indignity	UMI
56	suppose	PMI	chain	UMO	slender	PMI, UMI
57	picked	PMI, UMO	nod	PMI	faint	PMI, UMI
58	figurative	IMI	awoke	UMO, PMI	act on	PMI, UMI
59	simile	UMO, IMI	conscious	UMO	mobile	PMI, UMI
60	metaphor	UMO, IMI	ordered	UMO	primary	PMI
61	personification	UMO, IMI	coffee	UMO	comprehensive	PMI
62	angels	UMO, PMI	smoke	PMI	streamed	PMI
63	pin	UMO, PMI	stand	UMO, PMI	unstreamed	PMI
64	middle-ages	PMI	nervously	PMI	however	PMI
65	completely	UMO, PMI	forget	UMO, PMI	prove	PMI
66	height	UMI	graceful	PMI	awkward	PMI
67	pronunciation	UMI	industrial	PMI	wrinkled	PMI
68	ability	UMO, PMI, IMI	consultant	PMI	forehead	PMI
69	private	PMI	hatred	PMI	air	PMI
70	police	UMO, PMI	adolescent	PMI	study	PMI
71	revive	PMI	fantastic	PMI	run	PMI
72	satellite	PMI	determined	UMO, PMI		
73	panic	UMO, PMI	examining	PMI		
74	sputnik	PMI	dirty	UMO, PMI		
75	challenge	PMI	sunny	UMO		
76	creativity	PMI	rainy	UMO		
77	indicate	UMO	muddy	UMO, PMI		
78	practical	UMO	refrigerator	UMO, PMI		
79	award	IMI, PMI	ill-advised	UMO, PMI		
80	argue	PMI	somewhat	UMO, PMI		
81	believe	PMI	well-paid	UMO, PMI		
82	inevitable	PMI	much-used	UMO, PMI		

83	evaluate	PMI	well-informed	UMO, PMI		
84	competitors	PMI	well-travelled	UMO, PMI		
85	appearance	UMO	much-handled	UMO, PMI		
86	kind	UMO, PMI	well-known	UMO, PMI		
87	species	UMO, IMI	convert	PMI		
88	applied	UMO, PMI	edible	UMO		
89	embarrassed	UMO	notice	UMO		
90	dirty	UMO	master	PMI		
91	similar	UMO	continuous	PMI		
92	simply	UMO	breeze	UMO		
93	repeated	UMI	snow-covered	PMI		
94	intelligent	UMO				
95						
96						
97						

	Teacher D Bk2 Unit 9	**Input/Output types**	**Teacher E Bk3 Unit 1**	**Input/Output types**	**Teacher F Bk2 Unit 10**	**Input/Output types**
1	movement	PMI	arbitrary	PMI, IMI	praise	IMI
2	protest	PMI	circumstance	IMI	fantastic	PMI
3	hands	PMI	circumspect	PMI	profits	UMO, PMI
4	patient	PMI	circumscribe	UMO, PMI	stock	PMI
5	luncheon	UMI, PMI	fate	PMI	exhaust	UMO, PMI
6	beckon	UMI, PMI	doom	PMI	load	UMO, PMI, IMI
7	apartment	UMI, UMO PMI UMO	doomsday	PMI	watermelon	PMI

		UMO				
8	Latin	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	due	PMI, IMI	figuratively	PMI
9	quarter	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	temporary	PMI	receipt	PMI
10	overlook	UMI, UMO UMO UMO UMO	stroll	PMI	quit	PMI
11	presently	UMI, UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO	wander	PMI	transitional	
12	chat	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO IMI	commit	PMI, IMI	leave	PMI
13	senator	UMI,	counterculture	PMI	start	PMI
14	means	UMI, UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO	counteract	PMI PMI	while	PMI, UMO
15	Franc	UMI,	counterattack	PMI	home	PMI

		UMI		PMI		
16	modest	UMI, PMI IMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	counterpart	PMI	chary	PMI
17	imposing	UMI, PMI	counterclockwise	PMI	careful	PMI
18	attractive	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO UMO	counter-argument	PMI	cautious	PMI
19	charming	UMI, UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO	counter-measure	PMI PMI	shrug	PMI
20	devastating	UMI,	counter-offer	PMI	routine	UMO, PMI
21	passion	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	counter-charge	PMI	grind	PMI
22	impression	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO	confirm	PMI PMI	pension	PMI
23	talkative	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	respectable	PMI	convey	IMI, PMI

		UMO				
24	inclined	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	save	PMI	relay	IMI, PMI
25	attentive	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO	counter-culturists	PMI	economical	PMI
26	startle	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	perfectly	PMI		
27	fare	UMI, PMI UMO PMI UMO UMO UMO	straight	PMI		
28	reassure	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	face	PMI		
29	generously	UMI, UMO UMO UMO	unemployed	PMI		
30	generous	UMI,	solicitor	PMI		

		IMI PMI UMO UMO UMO				
31	nowadays	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO	barrister	PMI		
32	salmon	UMI, PMI	crazy	PMI		
33	menu	UMI, UMO UMO UMO UMO	drink-crazed	PMI		
34	mutton	UMI, PMI	discharge	PMI		
35	chop	UMI, UMO UMO UMO UMO	spokesman	UMI		
36	overload	UMI, UMO UMO	brush	PMI, UMO		
37	digestion	UMI, PMI, UMO UMO UMO	care	PMI		

		UMO				
38	hospitable	UMI, PMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	gravest	PMI		
39	effusive	UMI, PMI	poetically	PMI		
40	amicable	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	business	PMI		
41	flash	UMI, PMI PMI UMO UMO	postpone	PMI, IMI		
42	champagne	UMI, UMI PMI	enjoyable	PMI		
43	fancy	UMI, PMI UMO UMO	exhaustible	PMI		
44	trifle	UMI, UMO	regrettable	PMI		
45	forbid	UMI, UMO IMI UMO UMO UMO UMO	president	UMI		

46	gaily	UMI, PMI	innovator	PMI		
47	literature	UMI, UMO UMO	mood	PMI		
48	airy	UMI,	clockwise	PMI		
49	bite	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO				
50	asparagus	UMI,				
51	water	UMI, UMO UMO				
52	madame	UMI,				
53	might	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO				
54	will	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO				
55	assure	UMI, UMO PMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO PMI				
56	tender	UMI, PMI UMO				

		UMO UMO UMO UMO				
57	marvel	UMI, PMI PMI, UMO UMO, UMO UMO PMI				
58	sigh	UMI, IMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO				
59	ruin	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO				
60	panic	UMI, UMO, UMO UMO				
61	oblige	UMI, UMO, PMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO				
62	dramatic	UMI, PMI				

		UMO UMO UMO UMO UMO				
63	pick	UMI, PMI UMO UMO				
64	juicy	UMI, PMI				
65	appertising	UMI, PMI PMI				
66	wicked	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO				
67	thrust	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO PMI				
68	throat	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO				
69	mouthful	UMI, PMI PMI UMO, UMO UMO				
70	drama	UMI, PMI				

		UMO, UMO UMO				
71	head	UMI,				
72	waiter	UMI,				
73	ingratiating	UMI, PMI				
74	peach	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO PMI				
75	blush	UMI, PMI UMO UMO				
76	innocent	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO PMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO				
77	landscape	UMI, PMI UMO UMO				
78	lord	UMI, UMO UMO UMO				
79	snack	UMI, PMI UMO, UMO UMO				
80	instant	UMI, PMI				

		IMI UMO, UMO UMO UMO				
81	mean	UMI, UMO PMI UMO, PMI UMO UMO				
82	retort	UMI, PMI UMO UMO				
83	humorist	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO				
84	humor	UMI, UMO PMI UMO UMO				
85	cab	UMI, PMI UMO UMO				
86	revenge	UMI, PMI UMO UMO UMO UMO				
87	vindictive	UMI,				

		PMI PMI				
88	immortal	UMI, PMI				
89	pardonable	UMI,				
90	complacency	UMI,				
91	stone	UMI,				
92	present	UMO PMI				
93	at present	UMO				
94	meaning	UMO				
95	hospital	UMO				
96	marvelous	UMO, PMI				
97	fortune	UMO, PMI, IMI				
98	express	PMI				
99	decline	PMI, IMI UMO UMO				
100	sparkle	PMI UMO				
101	ungenerous	PMI				
102	environmental	UMO, PMI UMO				
103	chopstick	PMI				
104	overweight	PMI				
105	hostile	PMI				
106	flesh	UMO, IMI				
107	bush	UMO				
108	brush	UMO				
109	crash	UMO, IMI				
110	trivial	PMI UMO, UMO				
111	documents	UMO				
112	sign	PMI				

113	despair	UMO				
114	murderer	UMO				
115	dagger	PMI				
116	sore	PMI				
117	packetful	PMI, UMO				
118	shelfful	PMI, UMO				
119	cupful	PMI,				
120	armful	PMI, UMO				
121	basketful	PMI, UMO				
122	handful	PMI, UMO				
123	spadeful	PMI				
124	spoonfuls	IMI, UMO				
125	earth	PMI				
126	threaten	PMI				
127	appetite	PMI				
128	task	UMO				
129	flatter	UMO				
130	stout	PMI				
131	penny	PMI				
132	embarrassing	UMO, PMI				
133	gesture	PMI PMI				
134	address	PMI				
135	brightly	PMI				
136	tiny	PMI				
137	view	PMI				
138	shortform	PMI				
139	free moment	PMI				
140	Luxembourg	PMI				
141	manage	UMO, PMI				
142	correspondence	UMO				
143	ironic	PMI PMI				
144	pregnant	UMO				

145	divorce	UMO				
146	practical	PMI				
147	character	PMI				
148	exaggerate	PMI				
149	greedy	PMI				
150	shark	PMI				
151	comfort	PMI				
152	watermelon	PMI				
153	caviar	PMI				
154	psychological	PMI				
155	improper	PMI				
156	promptly	UMO, PMI				
157	proceeded	PMI				
158	pale	PMI				
159	charge	PMI				
160	giant	UMO				
161	traffic	PMI				
162	angel	PMI				
163	priest	PMI				
164	awkward	PMI				
165	enormous	PMI				
166	violently	PMI				
167	faintly	UMO				
168	huge	PMI				
169	paintings	PMI				
170	vivid	PMI				
171	absentmindedly	PMI				
172	contrast	PMI				
173	inadequate	PMI				
174	shook	PMI				
175	retorted	PMI				
176	fate	PMI PMI				
177	issue	UMO, PMI				

		UMO				
178	jam	PMI				
179	narrator	PMI				
180	refuse	PMI				
181	sophisticated	UMO, PMI				
182	unsophisticated	PMI				
183	implied	PMI				
184	fairer	PMI				
185	experiences	PMI				
186	inexperienced	PMI				
187	victims	PMI				
188	opera	PMI				
189	gambling	PMI				
190	negotiation	PMI				
191	dispute	PMI				
192	border	PMI				
193	settle	PMI				
194	ward	PMI				
195	cloned	PMI				
196	adult	PMI				
197	cell	PMI				

Appendix 8: Words added to VP1

ah
aha
ain't
aren't
can't
can't
couldn't
couldn't
didn't
doesn't
don't
eh
eha
em
en
er
er
err
err
ha
ha
hadn't
hah
hasn't
haven't
he'd
he'll
he's
hm
hmmm
how's
huh
huhh
I'd
I'll
I'm
isn't
it's
I've
la
let's
mm
ok
okay
one's
other's
shan't
she'd
she'll
she's
shouldn't
that's
there's
they'd
they'll
they're
they've
un
wasn't
we'd
we'll
we're
weren't
we've
what's
what's
where's
which's
who's
whom's
why's
won't
wouldn't
wow
ya
yah
yap
yea
yeah
yeh
you've
you'd
you'll
you're

Appendix 9: Words from teacher talk that are beyond VP3

(T-A) - 155 words		
ACADEMICIAN	EXAMS	PERSONIFICATION
ADAMS	FED	PHRASES
AMBASSADOR	FICTION	PLUG
AMERICA	FIGURATIVE	POP
AMERICAN	FOIST	PRAC
ANGELS	FUSS	PROFESSOR
APTITUDE	GESTURE	PROFESSORS
ARBITER	GODDAMNED	PRONOUNCEMENT
ASIMOV	GONNA	PRONUNCIATION
ASIMOV'S	GOODS	PROVERB
ASS	GUYS	QUIZ
AUTO	HARDWARE	RECOLLECTION
AUTOMOBILE	HARDWORKING	REFRIGERATOR
AUTOMOTIVE	HEARTILY	REGISTER
AWARDS	HEIGHT	REGISTERING
BANANARAMA	HOUSEWORK	REPAIRMAN
BENTS	IDIOMS	REPAIRMAN'S
BLACKBOARD	IDIOT	REPETITION
BRACKET	INEVITABLY	RUSSIAN
BUCK	INTRICATE	SCHOLARLY
BUILDER	ISSAC	SCHOLASTIC
BYRAN	JACKSON	SCHOLASTICISM
CAREY	JANET	SCISSOR
CARPENTER	KAVANA	SCISSORING
CDS	KIDDING	SEEMINGLY
CHINESE	KP	SHAKESPEARE
CLASSMATES	LARK	SIMILE
CLASSROOM	LIKENESS	SKILLFUL
CLASSROOMS	LOWLY	SLANG
CLINTON	MADONNA	SMART
CLOZE	MAMA	SMUGLY
CLUMSY	MAO	SOFTWARE
COLONEL	MARIAH	SOMEDAY
COMPETITOR	MICHAEL	SPICE
COMPETITORS	MORON	SPUTNIK
COMPLACENT	MOT	STU
COMPLACENTLY	MOVIE	SUB
CONDOR	MTV	SUBSECTION
CRAZY	ORAL	TALENTS
DAMN	ORT	TANNING
DEFECTIVE	OSCAR	TEACHER'S
DUMB	OUTLET	THERE'RE
EL	PANIC	TIGER
EMBARRASSED	PANICKED	TIGERS
EMBARRASSING	PARAGRAPH	TRICKERY
EMBASSY	PASA	UNDERESTIMATE
ENCYCLOPEDIA	PATIENTS	UNDERESTIMATING
ESSAY	PEDANTIC	UNDERLINED
EXAM	PEOPLE'S	VI

	(T-B) - 188 words	
VISA	ABOARD	DILIGENTLY
VITALS	ADDISON	DISGUISE
WASHER	ADJ	DUSTY
WEIGHTLESS	ADV	EDIBLE
WHEREUPON	ADVERBS	ELBOW
WOO	AMAZING	ENDURE
WORLD'S	AMERICA	EX
ZEDONG	AMERICAN	EXCLAIM
	AMERICANS	EXCLAIMED
	ANEW	EXCLAIMING
	APE	FAIRY
	ASHLEY	FANTASTIC
	ATTRIBUTIVE	FAREWELL
	AWOKE	FIRMER
	BANNER	FLORIDA
	BEACH	FOLK
	BEACHES	FOLKLORE
	BERMUDA	FORT
	BILLOW	FORTIFY
	BILLOWING	FORTIFYING
	BRAND	FRIDGE
	BREEZE	FRIENDLINESS
	BRUNSWICK	GAO GRANNY
	CANGJIAN	GRAY
	CHAPLIN'S	GREENWICH
	CHARLIE	G'S
	CHATTER	GUY
	CHATTERED	GUYS
	CHATTERING	HANDSOME
	CHEERFULLY	HARWARD
	CHEWING	HEN
	CHINESE	HILTON
	CLASSROOM	HOMETOWN
	CLAUSE	HOMEWORK
	CLIMATE	HOWARD
	CLINTON	II
	CLOZE	III
	COASTAL	ILLADVISED
	COLLEAGUE	ILLFITTING
	COMEDY	IMMATURE
	COMIC	INTERJECTION
	CON	ITALICIZED
	CONGRATULATIONS	IV
	CONTINUAL	IX
	CONVICT	JACKSON
	CONVICTED	JACKSONVILLE
	CORE	JAIL
	CRAZY	JAPANESE
	DAMN	JERSEY
	DAY'S	JIM

		(T-C) - 68 words
JOHN	SHY	ADJ
JOHNNY	SHYLY	ALGEBRA
JOHNSON	SL	BLOODSHOT
JOHNSON'S	SLANG	BOOTLACE
KENNY	SNAPSHOT	BRITAIN'S
KIDS	SNAPSHOTS	CABBAGE
LAUDERDALE	SOMEWHAT	CAMEL'S
LU	SS	CARPET
MANSVILLE	STUN	CERTIFICATE
MASK	STUNNED	COLONEL
MASKED	STUNNING	CONJ
MASKING	SUBTROPICAL	CONSUL
MASKS	SUFFIX	COUPLE
MICHAEL	SUICIDE	CRICKET
MICHEL	SUNRISE	CRUMB
MOVIE	SUNSET	DISMAY
NAIVE	SUPERVISION	DISMAYED
NOD	SWIG	EVERGREEN
NODDED	TALE	EXAM
OAK	THRONG	FOREHEAD
OUTSKIRTS	TRUCK	FUME
PALM	TV	GRAVEL
PARAGRAPH	UNFORMED	GRUMBLE
PAROLE	UNMOVING	GRUNT
PARTICIPLES	VANISH	HEADMASTER
PATROL	VANISHED	HYDROGEN
PATROLLED	VI	INCOMPETENT
PATTER	VINGO	INDIGNITY
PHRASE	VIRGO	ING
PHRASES	VOLUNTEER	JOHN
PLATFORM	WASHINGTON	JUNIOR
PLAYGROUND	WELLING	LACE
PREOCCUPIED	WELLTRAVELLED	LY
PRESIDENCY	YELLOW	METER
PROF	YORK	MOBILEPHONE
PROFESSOR	YORK'S	MOUSTACHE
PROMOTE	YOU'VE	MUMBLE
RAINY		ONESELF
REAPPEAR		PARAGRAPH
REFRIGERATOR		PEOPLE'S
REMARRIED		PHRASE
REPENT		PHRASES
RETREAT		PLUS
RETREATED		PREDECESSORS
RIBBON'S		PROSPECT
RUNAWAY		ROSES
SANDWICHES		SANDYCOLOURED
SCREAMED		SENIOR
SCREAMING		SETUP
SENTENCED		SHRUB

	(T-D) – 192 words	
SHRUBS	ABSENTMINDEDLY	CUPFUL
SHY	ADVERB	DAGGER
SHYLY	AFFORD	DARKFACED
SLENDER	AIRY	DECK
SLIM	AMERICAN	DEVASTATING
STALE	AMERICANS	DH
UNBEARABLE	AMICABLE	DIGESTER
UNDID	ANGEL	DIGESTION
UNDO	ANTICIPATED	DIVORCE
UNDOING	APARTMENT	DIVORCED
UNDONE	APPETITE	DOCUMENTS
UNDO'S	APPETIZING	DRAM
UNSTREAMED	ARMFUL	EFFUSIVE
VANGING	ASIAN	EMBARRASS
VISA	ASPARAGUS	EMBARRASSING
WAISTED	ATTENTIVE	EMBASSY
WINKLED	BALKANS	ENORMOUS
WRITER'S	BANANAS	ESP
	BASKETFUL	ETC
	BASKETFULS	EXAGGERATE
	BECKON	EXAGGERATIVE
	BECKONING	EYESIGHT
	BEN	FERRARI
	BESSIE	FLATTER
	BLACKBOARD	FLATTERED
	BLUSH	FLUSH
	BRIEF	FONDING
	BRITISH	FORBAD
	CAB	FORBADE
	CARELESSNESS	FOREVER
	CAVIAR	FOYOT
	CAVIARE	FOYOTS
	CEMETERY	FRANC
	CHAMPAGNE	FRANCS
	CHAT	FRENCH
	CHEERFULLY	GESTURE
	CHILD'S	GIANT
	CHINA	GIRLFRIEND
	CHINESE	HOMEWORK
	CHOP	HOSPITABILITY
	CHOPS	HOSPITABLE
	CHOPSTICK	HOSPITALITY
	CHOPSTICKS	HOW'S
	CIGARETTE	HU
	CLASSROOM	HUG
	CLINTON	HUMOR
	COMPLACENCY	HUMORIST
	CONCEAL	HYPHEN
	CONNECTIVES	IMMORTAL
	COUPLE	INADEQUATE

		(T-E) – 188 words
INGRATIATING	READINESS	ACCENT
INNOCENT	REASSURE	AD
INTALIAN	REASSURED	ADVERB
IRONIC	REDDENING	AIMLESSLY
ITALIAN	RETORT	ALUMINUM
JAM	RETORTED	AMERICAN
JANET	REVENGEFUL	ANT
JIM	RUTH	ARBITER
KIDS	SALESMAN	ARRESTABLE
LADY'S	SALMON	ATTESTED
LANDSCAPE	SENATOR	AU
LANG	SENATORS	AWARDED
LATIN	SHARK	BARRISTER
LUNCHEON	SHELFFUL	BEIJING
LUNCHON	SHORTFORM	BRACKETS
LUXEMBOURG	SIGH	BREAKABLE
LY	SIGHED	BRILLIANT
LYCHEE	SLIM	BRITAIN
MADAME	SNACK	BUCK
MARVEL	SPADEFUL	CASUAL
MARVELOUS	SPARKLE	CHAO
MENU	SPOONFULS	CIRCUM
MIKE	STARTLE	CIRCUMFERENCE
MOUTHFULS	STARTLED	CIRCUMSCRIBE
MUTTON	STOUT	CIRCUMSPECT
NETTALK	TALKATIVE	CITY'S
ONESELF	TASTY	CLOCKWISE
OVERHEAD	THRUST	CLOZE
OVERHEAR	TOM	COACH
OVERLOAD	TRANSIT	CONCISE
OVERLOADING	TRIFLE	CONFIRM
OVERLOOK	TV	CONFIRMED
OVERLOOKING	UNDERLINE	CONVICTED
OVERWEIGHT	UNEXPECTEDLY	CORRUPT
PACKET	UNFORGIVING	COUNTER
PACKETFUL	UNGENEROUS	COUNTERACT
PANIC	USAGES	COUNTERARGUMENT
PARAGRAPH	VINDICTIVE	COUNTERATTACK
PARDONABLE	VIVID	COUNTERCHARGE
PARIS	WATERMELON	COUNTERCLOCKWISE
PASSION	WATERY	COUNTERCULTURE
PEACH	WOMAN'S	COUNTERCULTURES
PEACHES		COUNTERMEASURE
PENNILESS		COUNTERMEASUREMENT
PETER		COUNTEROFFER
PHILIP		COUNTERPART
PHRASE		COUPLE
PHRASES		COURTROOM
PHSYCHOLOGICAL		CRAZED
PREGNANT		CRAZY

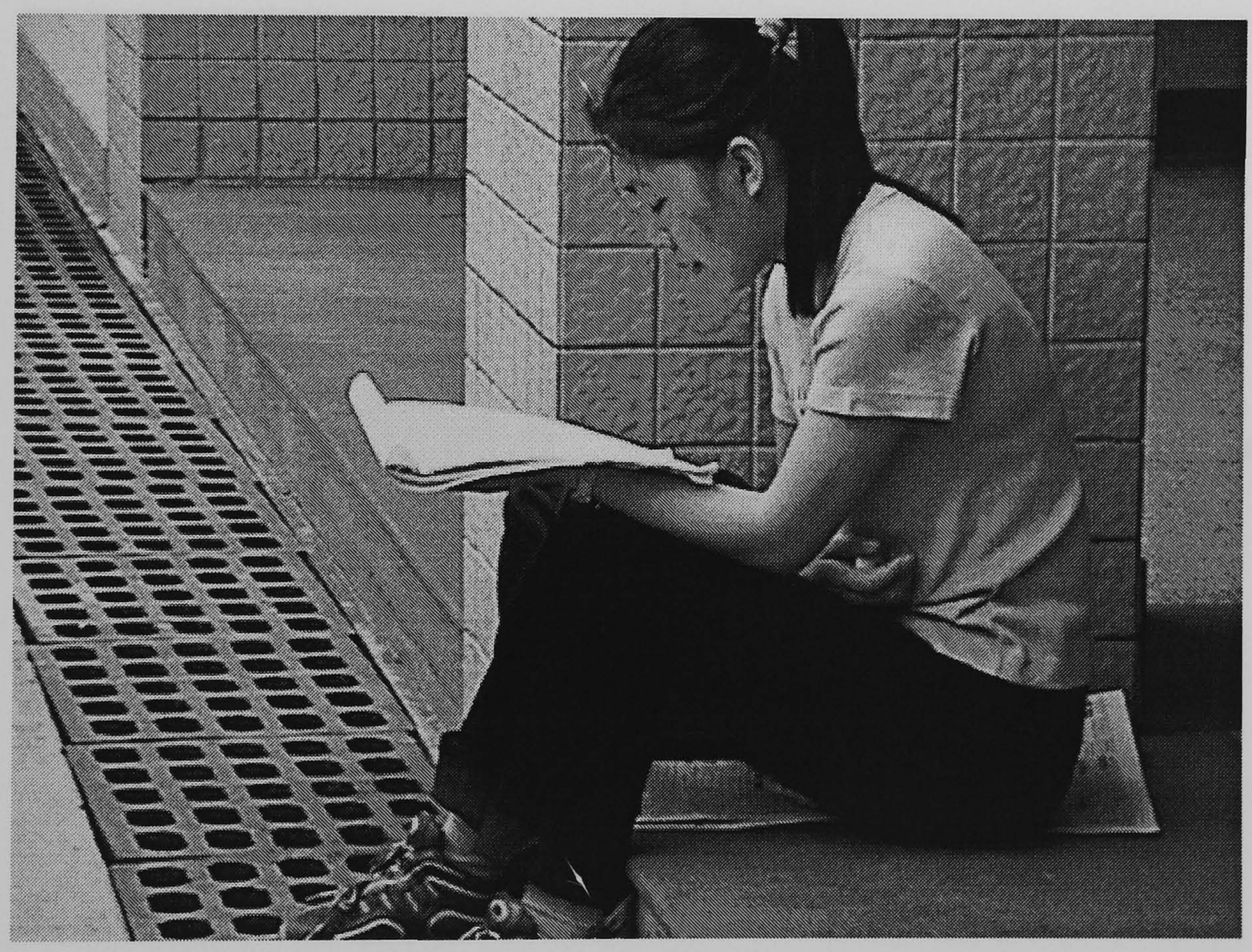
CULTURISTS	JIANG	PROMOTED
DEFENDANTS	JIE	QUAN
DEFENSE	JOE	RECKLESS
DESTINY	JOHN	REGRETTABLE
DISASTER	KIDNAPPED	REN
DISASTROUS	LAN	REPROACHFULLY
DISCHARGE	LEI	RESUME
DISCHARGED	LI	REVOLVE
DOOM	LIANG	REVOLVED
DOOMSDAY	LICENSE	RICHMOND
DOORSTEPS	LIU	SAN
DOWNFALL	LODGE	SCRIBE
DRUNKEN	LONDON	SEMESTER
DU	MA	SENTENCED
ENCOUNTER	MADAM	SLANG
ENGLAND	MAGISTRATE	SOLICITOR
ETC	MAGISTRATES	SOLICITOR'S
EXHAUSTIBLE	MAOYAN	SPOKESMAN
FAIT	MAYOR	SPOKESPERSON
FELONY	MOOD	SPOKESWOMAN
FIRMER	MOT	STAGGERED
FOREST	MOVIE	STROLL
FRANCE	NANJING	SUICIDE
FRANCESCO	NORTHWARD	SUPPOSEDLY
FRENCH	OFFENCE	SUSPENSION
FUTILE	OFFENCES	TEAM'S
GLOOMILY	OPPOSITION	TESTIFY
GONG	ORAL	UNCONVENTIONAL
GOVERNMENT'S	OREGON	VICTIM
GRASP	OUTRAGED	VOLUNTEER
GRAVEST	OVERALL	WEI
GUI	PARAGRAPH	WORKABLE
GUM	PARALLEL	WORLDLY
GUO	PERCENT	YI
HIJACKERS	PERMISSIBLE	YING
HUA	PETROLEUM	YORK
HUANG	PETTY	YUAN
HUMOR	PHRASAL	ZHANG
IMAGINABLE	PHRASE	ZHAO
INDULGED	PHRASES	ZHENG
INDUSTRIOUS	PLATFORM	
INEXPERIENCE	PLUS	
INNOCENT	POETICALLY	
INNOVATOR	PORTLAND	
INNOVATORS	PREDETERMINED	
ITALICIZED	PREFIX	
JAIL	PREVIEW	
JENNY	PRODUCT'S	
JIA	PROFESSOR	

(T-F) – 148 words		
BEEF	HARE	QUITTING
BIN	HENCE	RELAY
BING	HOMEWORK	RIND
BLACKBOARD	HUANG	ROUTINE
BOOING	HUI	SALVE
BOOKSTORE	HUMOROUS	SHILLNYING
BULLET	INCITE	SHRUG
CAO	INSPIRE	SHRUGGED
CAY	JACKET	SHY
CHAO	JIAN	SMART
CHARY	JING	SOMEBODY'S
CHERRY	JING'S	STH
CHINA	KANG	STRANGER'S
CHINESE	KE	SYLLABLE
CITY'S	KEEPER	TANG
CLASSMATES	LAI	TAO
CLASSROOM	LEAPT	TELEVISION
CLAUSE	LI	TENNIS
CLUES	LIANG	TING
COM	LIN	TOM
COMPLIMENT	LU	TRANSITIONAL
COMPLIMENTARY	MEDICAL	TRANSITIONED
COMPLIMENTS	MELON	TROUSERS
COMPOSITIONS	MELONS	TRUCK
CONVEY	MEN'S	UNDERLINE
DE	MING	UNINTERESTING
DEPART	MOTHERLAND	VACATION
DIET	MULE	WANG
DORMITORY	NAI	WARDED
DRILLING	NIT	WATERMELON
DUSTBIN	PARAGRAPH	WATERMELONS
ECONOMICAL	PARAGRAPHS	WEN
EMBARRASSED	PARTICIPLE	WILLS
ENLARGE	PENSION	WOMAN'S
ETC	PEOPLE'S	WRIT
EXHORTS	PERSONALITY	WTH
FANTASTIC	PHRASE	XIAO
FENG	PHRASES	XU
FENG'S	PHYSICS	YAN
FIGURATIVELY	PING	YAO
FIST	PING'S	YON
FOREVER	PORK	YU
FRANCE	POWEREST	YUN
GON	PREMIER	ZHANG
GONG	PREVIEW	ZHANGMIN
GONGGNOHUI	PROPOSITIONS	ZHAO
GOOK	PUTTED	ZHENG
GUANG	QUIT	ZHONG
GUO	QUITTED	ZHOU
		ZHOUG

Appendix 10: Photos

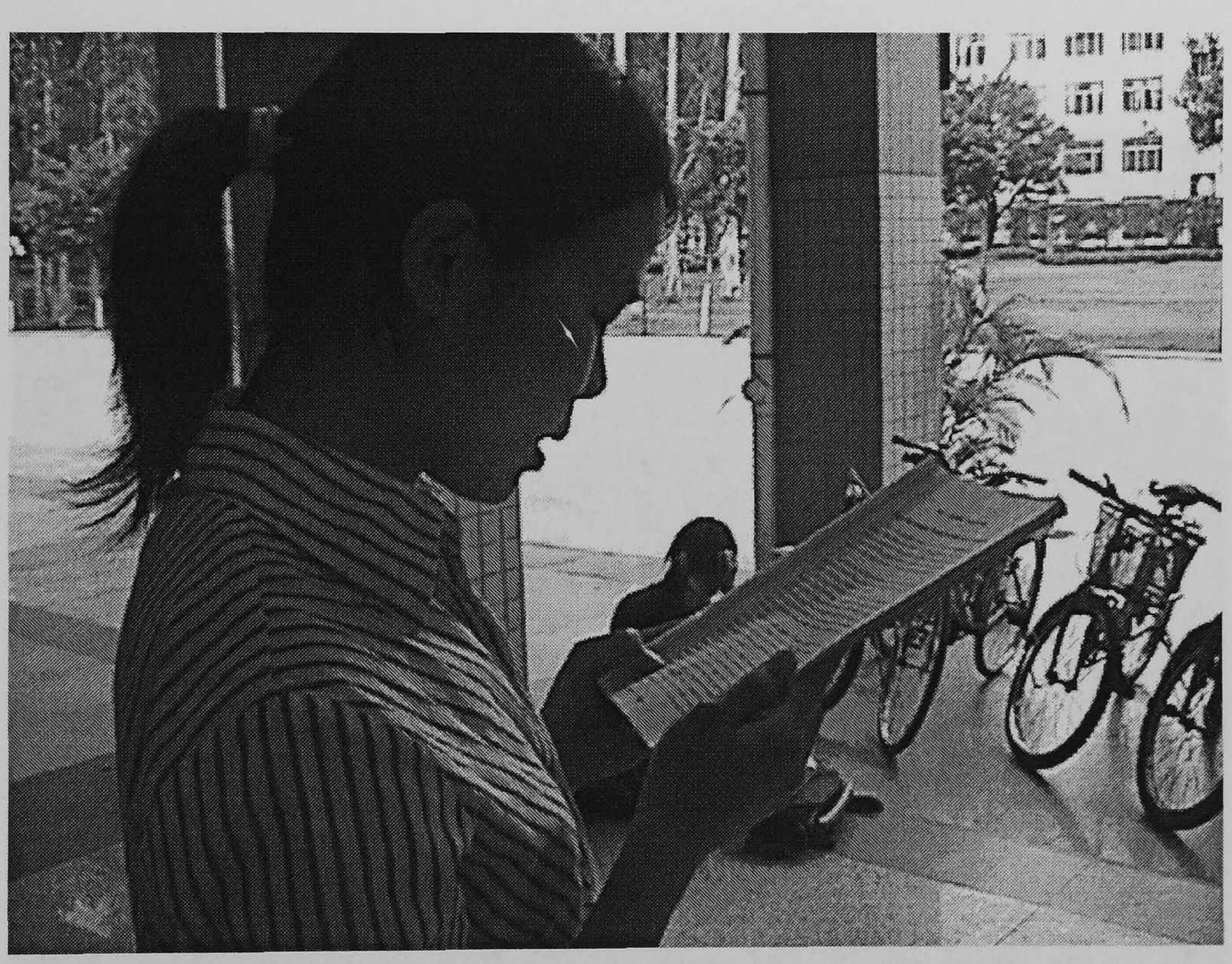
a) Campus environment

Practising speaking



Reading aloud

Reading aloud



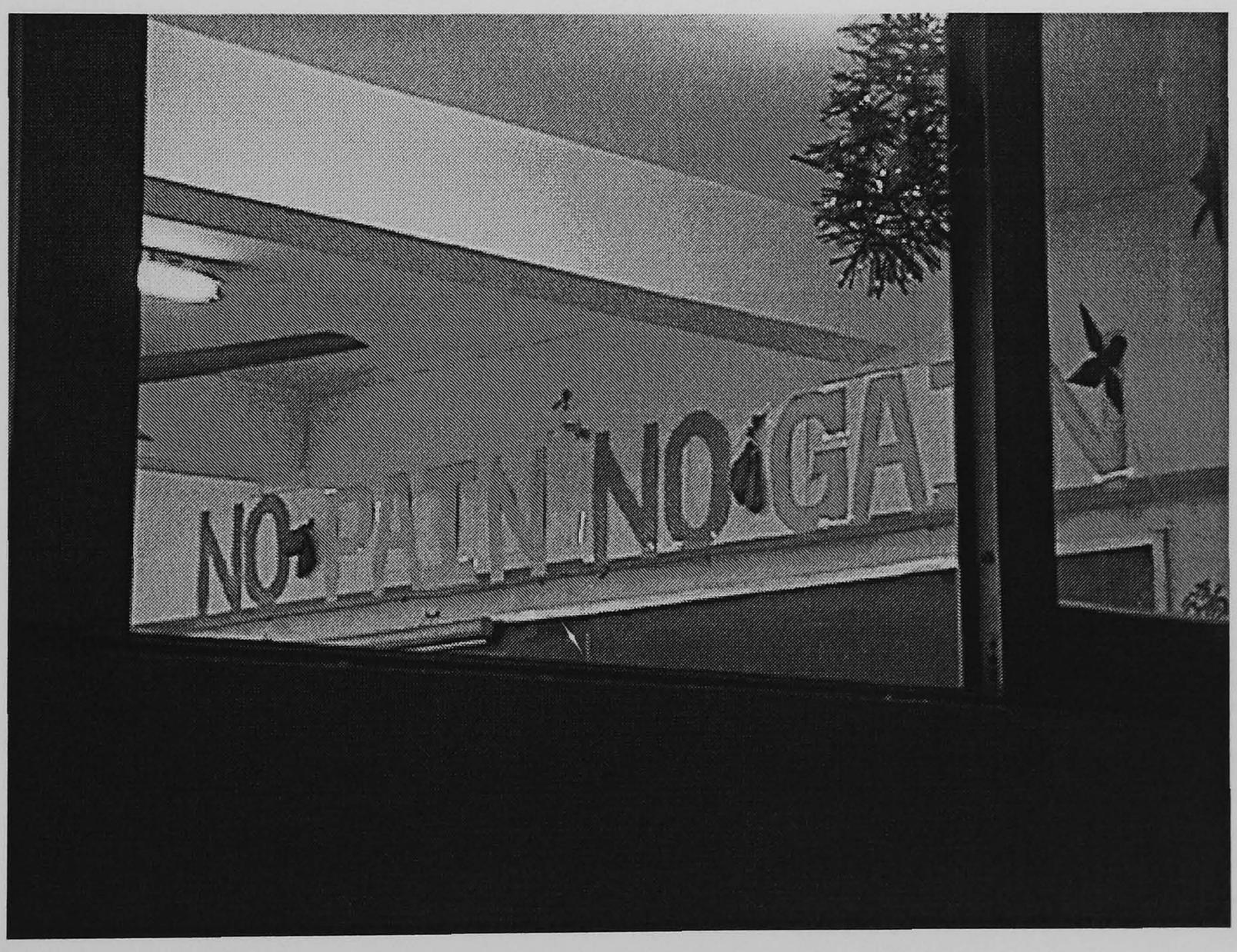
Reading aloud

b) English environment

English words

Code-mixed

Slogan



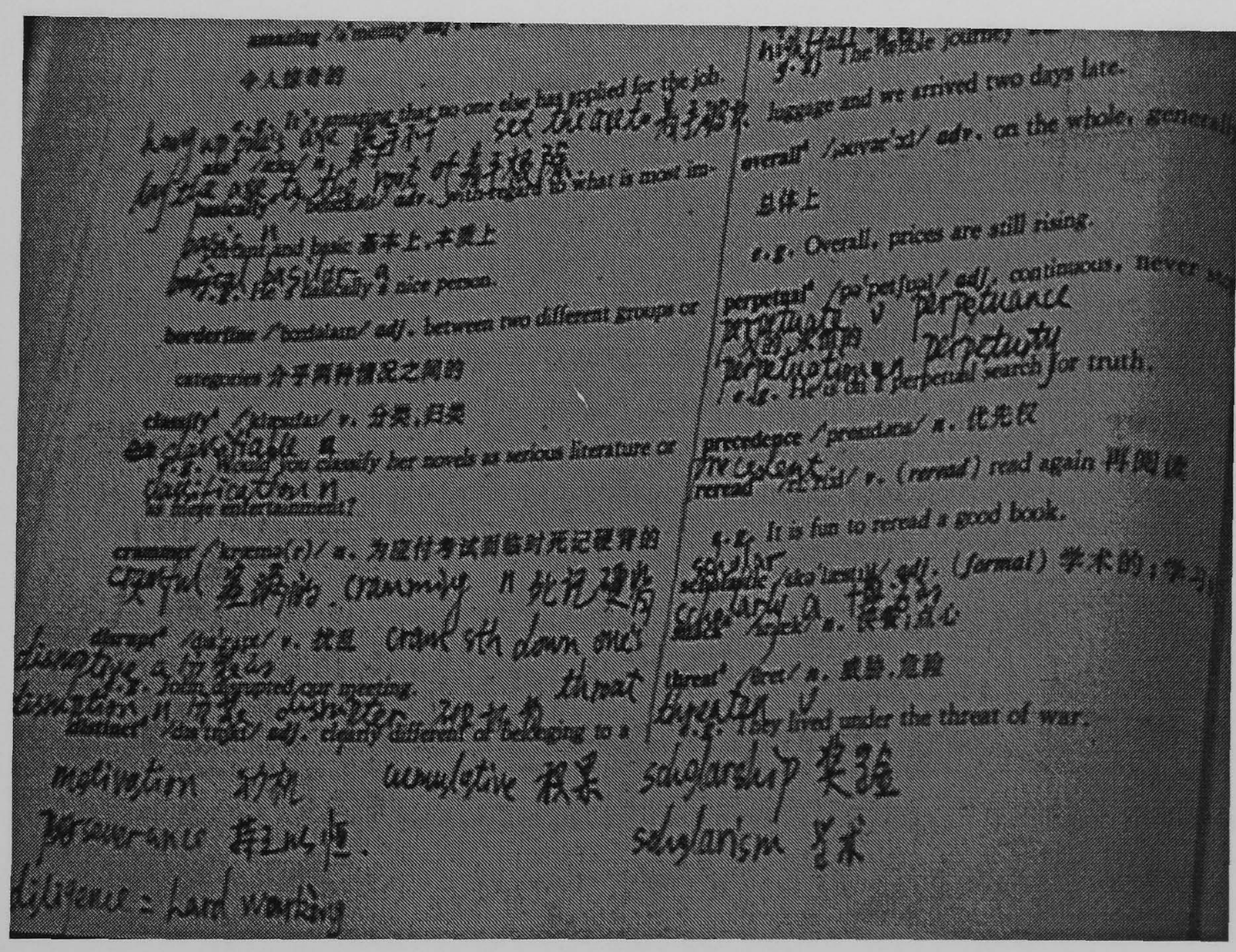
Slogan

c) Classroom environment

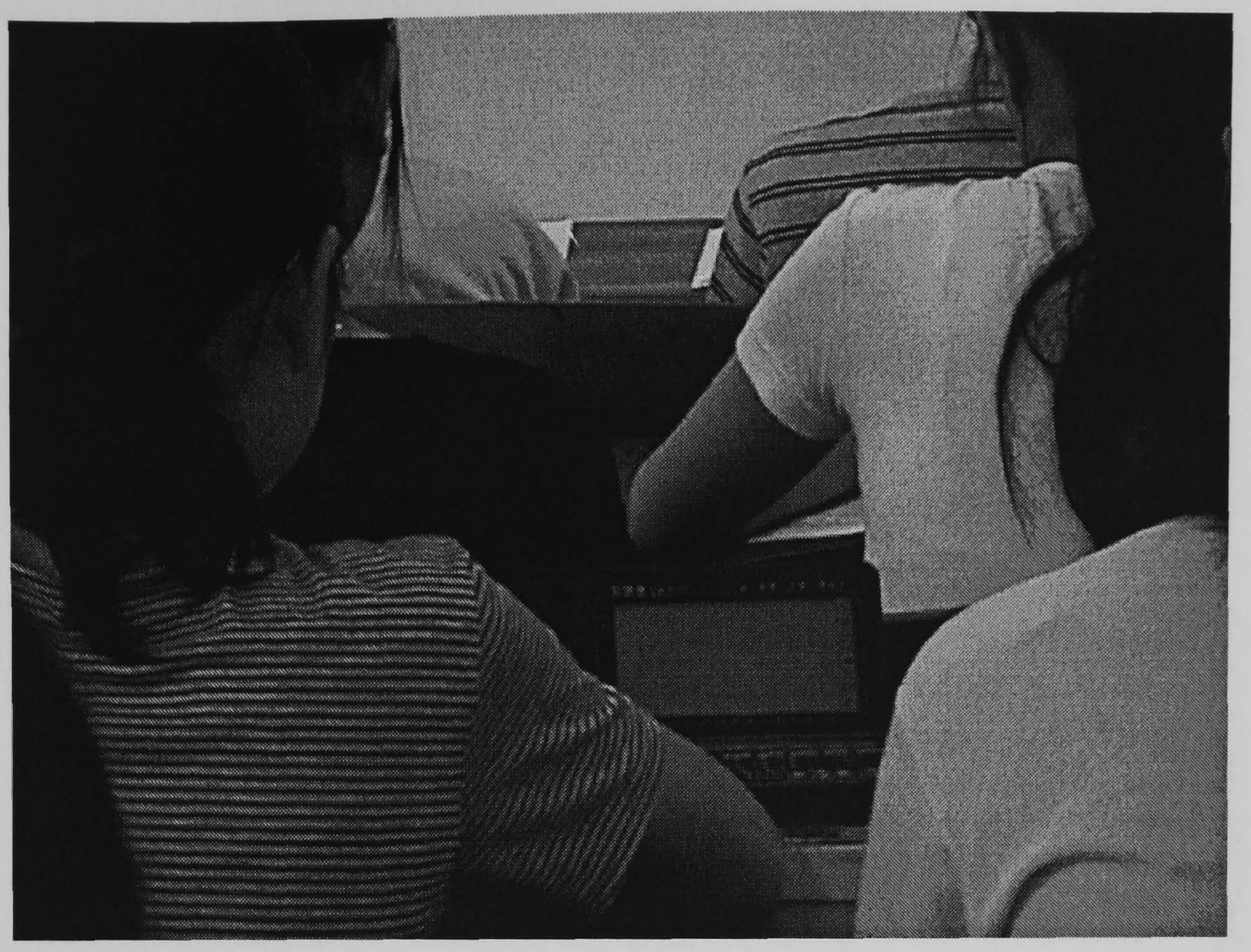
Explaining vocabulary

Copying teacher's explanation

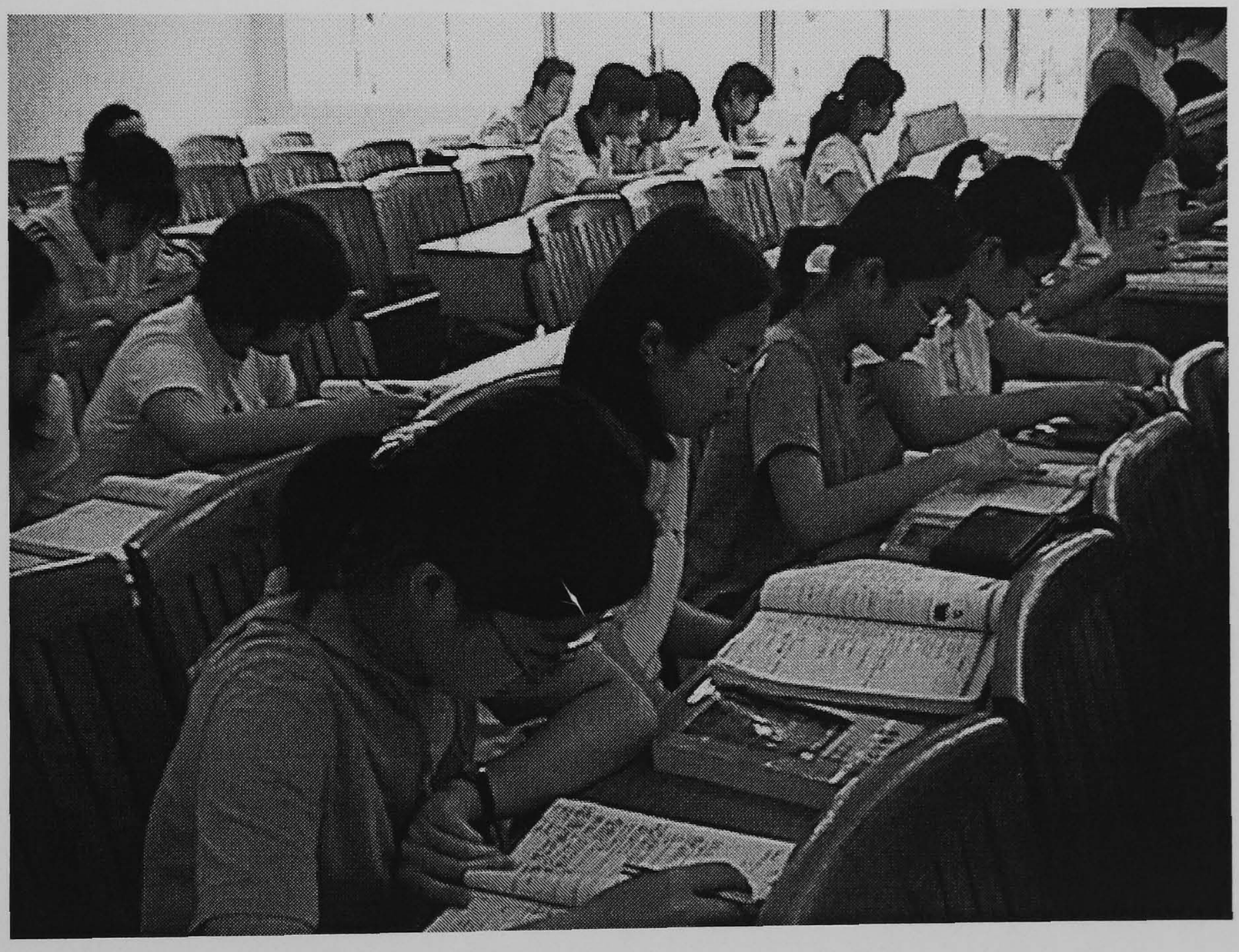
role of textbook



Vocabulary learning



Use of electronic dictionary



Attentive

Listening practice

Appendix 11: CD ROM

Please contact the author for a copy of the CD ROM.

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England